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ABSTRACT

The report investigates current practices and attitudes toward social education in twenty schools in Australia. Three different aspects of the curriculum--the ideal, the planned, and the operative--are reflected from viewpoints of the teacher, the student, and the outside observer. Particular attention is paid to the implications of the curriculum for the students' ability to function effectively in today's society. A secondary objective was to develop, test, and refine a typology based on curriculum style. Using both qualitative and quantitative methods, a variety of data gathering techniques were used, including questionnaires, Q-sort, interviews, attitude measures, and content analysis. The report is presented in four sections. Section I outlines the background and provides an overview of curriculum study and the basic typology developed from it. Section II examines the relationship between curriculum style and the kind of social education that students receive. Section III extends and refines the typology on the basis of evidence collected during the study. Section IV summarizes findings including a high level of agreement between teachers and students, style types, and schools on the ideal curriculum in social learning, less marked agreement on the planned curriculum; and differences in perceptions of the operative curriculum. The typology of curriculum style was extended from three to nine style types. Three working hypotheses were found: that these curriculum style types will be found in other social education programs, that their characteristics will be similar, and that they will have similar implications to those evident in the case study schools. Recommendations include a further testing of the hypotheses in a wider variety of school and curriculum situations and a further exploration of the characteristics and determinants of curriculum style. (Author/CK)

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CURRICULUM STYLE AND SOCIAL LEARNING

an investigation into current school practices in social education

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SECTION ONE

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

> There is only one honest answer to the question, 'What goes on in our schools?' It is that our knowledge is exceedingly limited ... There is not now either a body of data on what transpires in schools from which to begin an enlightened discussion of schooling or a tested methodology for securing these data.
>
> - John I Goodlad: *What Goes On In Our Schools?*

CHAPTER 1

THE SOCIAL LEARNING PROJECT

The curriculum debate flourishes, in the media and elsewhere; and, in Australia at least, it flourishes mainly in the dark. There is no shortage of pundits ready to tell us what schools *should be* doing, without any clear idea of what they *are* doing. There was a time of centralized and prescriptive syllabuses when it was possible to know, at least in outline, what was being taught in our schools; but the move away from prescription, the move towards school-based curriculum, the tendency for official syllabuses, where they still exist, to be statements of intent rather than statements of content, make it difficult even for the expert in curriculum to know very much about what schools are currently doing. Given this state of ignorance, and the level of interest attested by the flourishing curriculum debate, it is surprising that so little research has been done into current curriculum practices in Australian schools. Nor is this a purely Australian phenomenon. The quotation from Goodlad (1977:3) which prefaces this section argues a similar ignorance of what goes on in American schools. There is an urgent need for studies which attempt to document as objectively as possible, and across the spectrum of styles, what is happening in schools; for until we have such studies we will continue to be, in Goodlad's words, 'as vulnerable as we are now to specious assumptions about what goes on, and does not go on in schools, and to simplistic suggestions about what is needed to improve them.' (*op.cit.*:6).

It was the recognition of this state of ignorance in a limited but important area of the curriculum, the area of social education, that gave rise to the present study. The Social Learning Project was originally conceived as a follow-up to an earlier study (Piper, 1977) which attempted to identify the components of social learning that are essential to effective functioning in society. Inevitably the question arose of how the social education currently provided by schools measured up to the needs as identified by that study, and it quickly became apparent that the information needed to answer such a question was simply not available.

The Social Learning Project set out to investigate what students in Australian schools learn from their junior secondary schooling about society and about living in society, with special reference to the kind of learning that will help them to function more effectively in their society when they leave the school system. The investigation was focused on the curriculum in Years 7-10, the junior secondary school, with a special emphasis on Years 9 and 10, the point at which most young people are preparing to leave the school system to enter the wider society.

Twenty schools were selected for case study, ten in New South Wales and ten in Victoria, with a view to providing as wide a range of approaches to the curriculum in social education as possible. Clearly a simple random sample of schools was unlikely to provide such a range of approaches, and it was in response to the practical problem of identifying and selecting a range of schools for case study that the basic typology of curriculum style described in Chapter 2 was developed. In applying this typology to the task of identifying and selecting appropriate schools, use was made of panels of consultants with an intimate knowledge of the schools in the respective States. While the primary criterion for selection was the creation of a sample of schools covering the desired range of approaches to the curriculum in social learning, care was taken to ensure that the sample included both state and independent schools; high schools and technical schools; inner urban, suburban, and rural schools; and boys', girls', and co-educational schools. Only good or at least competent examples of style type were sought, since it was argued that any comparison of styles emanating from the study would be vitiated if it included poor or incompetent examples.

Introductory visits were made to all twenty case study schools during July-August, 1977. The purpose of this introductory visit was to establish contact with the school, to explain the nature of the study to key personnel and to enlist their co-operation, and to collect preliminary data on the school's program in social learning. Questionnaires were left with key teachers representative of those subject areas/courses/programs which might be considered as contributing to the school's program in social learning.

As a result of these introductory visits, it was possible to determine the viability of the typology and the adequacy of the sample of schools selected, and to determine procedures for lengthier follow-up visits. It had originally been intended, using the data collected during the introductory visits, to select a small sample of schools for more intensive case study. It became clear, however, that if the full range of styles was to be adequately explored and a reasonably comprehensive typology of curriculum style developed, it would be desirable to make follow-up visits to all twenty schools. Luckily it was possible to replan the study to permit this, and follow-up visits were made to all schools during third term 1977 and the first half of 1978.

The methodology of the study has involved a departure from traditional research design in that it has sought to bring both qualitative and quantitative methods to bear on the research questions being investigated. This has sought to be something more than a simple combination of divergent techniques; rather it has aimed at interaction between qualitative and quantitative methods whereby the two approaches serve to amplify and illuminate each other. A variety of techniques for gathering data were employed: questionnaires, Q-sort, interviews, attitude measures, observation, content analysis of documents and materials, and informal methods; and the perceptions of students, as well as those of teachers, were canvassed.

As the study developed, its original intention broadened to embrace a wider perspective, still with a special focus on social learning, but with wider implications for the study of the curriculum and for the curriculum debate in general. The development of a typology based on curriculum style, and the empirical testing and refinement of the typology, emerged as important secondary aims of the project and might well prove to be a major source of interest in the study.

In reporting the study, I have been conscious of the varied audience to whom its findings are likely to be of interest: teachers, curriculum developers, administrators, and interested laymen no less than fellow researchers. Technical detail has consequently been kept to a minimum consistent with the integrity of the study, and where it has been found necessary to include it in order to sustain the argument, every effort has been made to demystify it and make it intelligible to the general reader. In doing so I hope I have not given the impression of talking down to those of my readers for whom such explanation is superfluous.

This report is presented in four sections: an introductory section outlining the background to the study and providing an overview of the concept of curriculum style and the basic typology developed from it; a section examining in some detail the relationship between curriculum style and the kind of social education that students receive; a section devoted to the extension and refinement of the typology on the basis of the evidence collected during the study; and a final section summarizing the findings of the study and considering their implications for the curriculum and for further research. The instruments used in the study and data tables relevant to the relationship between curriculum style and social learning are included as appendices.

Before concluding this brief introductory chapter I would like to acknowledge once more my indebtedness to the principals, staff, and students of those schools who have accorded me the privilege of sharing their problems and their solutions, their successes and their failures, their initiatives and their concerns, for without their tolerance, their co-operation, and their frankness this study could not have been realized.

CHAPTER 2

THE CONCEPT OF CURRICULUM STYLE

The idea of developing a typology based on curriculum style arose initially as a practical response to an immediate problem: the need to establish a basis for identifying and selecting a group of schools for case study which would cover a wide spectrum of approaches to the curriculum in social learning. It was only as the idea developed and began to arouse the interest of colleagues and others that its wider potential became apparent and it began to assume a more central role in the design of the study.

The Concept of Style

The concept of *style* itself derives from criticism in literature and the arts, where it occupies a key position roughly analogous to that occupied by the concept of a *model* in the sciences. It is a ubiquitous and highly flexible concept. Thus it can be applied in a personal or individual context to describe the unique characteristics of an artist's work; in a developmental context to describe changes in an artist's work; in an historical context to categorize and characterize periods; in a locational context to define national, regional, or cultural styles; in a technical context to classify similarities of technique or purpose, or to create paradigms of a 'good' style; or in a formal context to identify qualities.

More relevant to our purpose here, the concept can be applied in a more widely generalized context which overarches and subsumes these other uses. Thus to describe Blake, Keats, and Dylan Thomas as *romantic* poets suggests a great deal about the qualities we might expect to find in their work, the implicit values underlying that work, and the potential sources of strength and weakness in their work, without negating the uniqueness of their individual styles or their clear reflection of period styles. Thus, while style is essentially idiosyncratic (*le style est l'homme même* in Buffon's much-quoted definition), its idiosyncratic nature does not preclude the reflection of culturally-derived similarities and relationships which permit broader classification.

Style in this broader sense is defined by its focus rather than by the breadth of its vision or the range of its concerns. It suggests the general qualities of an artist's work without any necessary implications concerning the quality of that work; it suggests the focus of an artist's work without implying a narrowness of focus. Thus we can define a *classical* style as one which focuses on form and a *romantic* style as one which focuses on the expression of feeling, and note that Mozart has a 'classical' style while Wagner has a 'romantic' style, without implying that Mozart lacks feeling or that Wagner is unconcerned with form, and without implying any necessary value judgment on their relative excellence as composers.

Further, the concept of *style* is useful since, while it is amenable to analysis (and there is scope for a great deal of analysis) it is also amenable to recognition and identification without detailed analysis. The arts of imitation, parody, and caricature depend on such immediate recognition and identification. Thus, in two famous passages in *Ulysses*, Joyce is able to imitate the development of English prose style and to parody the romantic novelette in ways which are immediately recognizable to his readers. On a more familiar level, it is possible to recognize and correctly identify a previously unseen painting by Rembrandt, a Georgian house, or a new song by the reigning 'pop' group, on the basis of style alone, without any undue searching after fact, and even without any technical understanding of art, architecture, or music, given a reasonable degree of familiarity with other examples of the same style.

The concept of *style* is not of course confined to criticism, or exclusively to the arts. It has its application in everyday usage (dress, cars, sport), and also - though less commonly - in the social and behavioural sciences. Thus we find it being used in psychology ('cognitive style', Adler's 'life style'), in political science (Little, 1973), and in business administration ('leadership style'). Presumably, too, the vogue term 'lifestyle' has its origins in sociology or social anthropology. Closer to home we find the concept being used in measurement ('response style'), in educational research (Bennett, 1976), and, more usefully for our purpose, in the OECD conference on *Styles of Curriculum Development* (Maclure, 1972).

As an approach to curriculum classification and identification the virtue of the concept lies in its flexibility; its capacity to bypass the rhetoric and entrenched value positions of much current discourse concerning the curriculum (including much that passes as curriculum theory), while avoiding the rigidity imposed by curriculum models; its relevance to practice as well as to theory, to the actual as well as to the intended; its capacity to encompass the individual, even the eccentric, within the general; its capacity to generate hypotheses; and its appropriateness to a creative human endeavour that is at least as much an art as it is a science. As Maclure points out in the report of the OECD conference referred to above:

> As a metaphor it is more sinuous and adaptable (but no more metaphorical) than the all-pervasive idea of a "model" which social scientists often prefer to use. Questions of vocabulary play an important part in discourse about the curriculum. Words, no less than techniques of development, carry with them concealed values: the idea of a "model" imparts the notion of engineering and design, with the overtones and quasi-scientific assumptions of social science. "Style", on the other hand, draws on the language of the arts and the ideas and techniques of perception and analysis which go with this language. (Maclure, 1972:8)

Towards a Definition of Curriculum

The term *curriculum* itself is subject to a variety of definitions, ranging from narrow definitions as the planned program of instruction, often represented by a document or a set of materials, to broad definitions which embrace the entire range of the functions of the school and the total experience of the child within the school, and which are difficult to distinguish from education itself. Faced with this dilemma of definition, many writers on curriculum have taken refuge in a broad view in which the term is taken to embrace 'all the experiences a learner has under the guidance of the school' (Kearney and Cook, 1960). Thus Musgrave (1973), in introducing a collection of contemporary studies in the curriculum:

> Before attempting this task, however, a brief comment about the term 'curriculum', is necessary, since it has been defined in many different ways. Here a broad view is taken and the curriculum is seen to be all those learning experiences arranged by a formal educational organization for its students, whether these occur within or outside the premises concerned. (Musgrave, 1973:1)

Maclure, in his report of the OECD conference referred to earlier, notes problems of communication arising from this breadth of definition:

> Syllabus, programme, course - these can be rendered in French or German; curriculum, on the other hand, not only has no counterpart, but tends to be used so loosely in English that the concept as well as the word seems difficult to pin down. (Maclure, 1973:10)

and records Ahlstrom's call at the conference for a definition which would 'allow a meaningful distinction between curriculum and instruction' (*ibid.*:11).

A similar concern is displayed by Foshay and Beilin in their article on *Curriculum* in the fourth edition of the *Encyclopaedia of Educational*

Research, where, after noting the prevalence of broad definitions 'since the late 1930s', including the definition quoted above from the earlier edition of the same encyclopaedia (Kearney and Cook, 1960), they refer with approval to a definition by Macdonald (1965):

> The curriculum is defined as the system of "planned actions for instruction", and instruction as "the system for putting the plan into action" ...... This separation of curriculum from instruction, and the emphasis on what is planned, makes distinctions not offered in the earlier statements. (Foshay and Beilin, 1969:276)

Macdonald is able to make this separation by adopting a sociological perspective based on the systems approach of Talcott Parsons and Edward Shils:

> The Curriculum system consists of persons who are part of a social system which eventuates in *a* Curriculum, in the sense of plans for action. The important distinction for purposes here is the boundary between curriculum and instruction. They are essentially two separate action contexts, one (curriculum) producing plans for further action; and, the other (instruction) putting plans into action. (Macdonald, 1965:4-5)

To pursue this distinction between curriculum and instruction would be sterile if it were simply a question of academic definition; and indeed certainly in the initial stages of the study it was assumed that there would be a close relationship between the WHAT of teaching and the HOW of teaching, between the planned program of learning experiences and the teaching methods employed to put that program into practice; and that the issue would simply be one of whether the study focused its attention mainly on the program of instruction or on the methods by which that program was taught. To put it at its crudest, it was assumed that traditional programs would tend to employ mainly traditional teaching methods and that innovative programs would tend to employ mainly innovative teaching methods: an assumption which appears to underlie much of the research into teaching styles.[1] As will become clear in later chapters of this report, the actual practice of the schools involved in this study does not support such an assumption.

While Macdonald's definition accommodates this empirically observed distinction, its emphasis on what is planned obscures the equally observable distinction between plans *for* action and plans *in* action; between the program-as-planned and the program-in-practice; between the *intended* curriculum and the *operative* curriculum; a distinction which is not simply attributable to variations in teaching method. It is not simply a question of how plans are put into action, but of the changes which take place in the plans themselves in the process of their being put into action. To the extent that we are concerned with these changes in the plans themselves, we are concerned with curriculum elements rather than with instructional elements.

---

[1] See, for example, Bennett, 1976; Campbell, 1977; Campbell & Campbell, 1978.

Macdonald's definition also raises the question of the extent to which the study should concern itself with the so-called 'hidden' curriculum, especially since the investigation is concerned with social learning and it seems a reasonable assumption that much of the social learning that takes place in schools takes place outside the planned program of learning experiences. However, as has been noted earlier, we know very little of the contributions of the more accessible 'overt' curriculum to the social learning of students, especially in Australian schools; and until these have been more clearly defined it would seem somewhat premature to be concerning ourselves with the residual concept of a 'hidden' curriculum. Moreover, while the concept of a 'hidden' or 'latent' curriculum has had considerable currency in educational writing for some time, it appears not to have been clearly articulated or closely investigated (Dreeben, 1976; Martin, 1976). None of which is to suggest that the 'hidden' curriculum is assumed to be unimportant in social learning or not to merit careful investigation. On the contrary, if an assumption is being made it is that the concept of a 'hidden' or 'latent' curriculum is far too important and complex a question to be investigated as an afterthought to a study whose principal concern is with the overt curriculum, which itself offers more than enough challenge for the limited resources of a single study. Where evidence which appears to be relevant to a 'hidden' curriculum has emerged from the case studies, it has been noted and is discussed; but there is no pretence that this constitutes a systematic investigation of the 'hidden' curriculum, or even that the concept itself has been adequately defined.

Since the concept of curriculum style as it is developed in this study is very much rooted in school practice, it seems appropriate that any definition of curriculum employed should be similarly practice-based. Insofar as the case-study schools in the present study reflect current school practices in social learning, such a definition would therefore require that at least three distinctions be made:

(i) a distinction between *curriculum* and *instruction*;

(ii) a distinction between the *intended* (or planned) curriculum and the *actual* (or operative) curriculum; and

(iii) a distinction between the *overt*, or declared, curriculum and the *hidden*, or unintended, effects of schooling.

Provided these distinctions are kept clearly in mind, a useful working definition, and one that is reasonably consonant with current Australian usage and practice, is that provided by the *Dictionary of Australian Education:*

> Curriculum: The whole program of studies offered by the school; the whole of the planned experiences offered to the student under the guidance of a school; the program of studies offered in one particular field, such as, for example, an arts curriculum, a social sciences curriculum; ... (McLaren, 1974:71)

We will return to this question of definition from a number of different angles in succeeding chapters.

Developing a Typology of Curriculum Style

In developing a typology based on the concept of curriculum style I was concerned not only with the need to provide a viable procedure for the selection and identification of schools for case study, but also with the development of a conceptual framework which would illuminate the case studies themselves and provide a fruitful source for the generation of hypotheses concerning the research questions being investigated; with developing what Diesing (1972) has called a *sensitizing concept*.

Much of the thinking that went into the initial development of the typology was of necessity centred on what had been written *about* the curriculum, as distinct from the empirical observation of the curriculum itself. I am aware of the dangers inherent in this approach, especially since it is unlikely that Australian teachers are any more given to reading educational theory than their English counterparts (Bennett, 1976). It was, however, possible to check the hypothesized typology against some empirical data relevant to the curriculum in social education in Australian schools (NCSST, 1973; Piper, 1976; Piper, 1977), and while it would be foolish to consider this as providing adequate empirical support, it can at least be claimed that the typology was consistent with this body of evidence. In addition the typology was submitted to an extended process of criticism, discussion, and consequent refinement both within ACER, and outside, which served to tighten it and to clarify some of its initial confusions.

More importantly, the study itself has provided the opportunity for a dialectic in which the hypothesized type has served to illuminate the case study, and the case study has served to test and refine the type. As a result, not only has it been possible to extend the typology and refine the classification on the basis of empirical observation in the case study schools, but the basic typology itself has undergone considerable modification and refinement in the process.

The Basic Styles

The basic typology postulates three broad curriculum styles - a Type I, or expository, style; a Type II, or functional, style; and a Type III, or situational, style. While the conceptualization of the basic styles has changed considerably during the process of the study, especially in assumptions about possible style characteristics, the basic definitions of the three style types have changed very little.

It will be recalled that in our discussion of the concept of style as it is used in criticism in literature and the arts, it was pointed out that a style is defined, not by its boundaries or the range of its concerns, but by its *focus*. It is this definition by focus that gives the concept much of its flexibility. In adopting the concept of style from criticism in literature and the arts, I have also adopted this principle of definition by focus, as follows:

> *A Type I, or expository, style* is one whose focus, or principal curriculum orientation, is the *content* of the learning.
>
> *A Type II, or functional, style* is one whose focus, or principal curriculum orientation, is the *process* of learning.
>
> *A Type III, or situational, style* is one whose focus, or principal curriculum orientation, is the *context* in which the learning takes place.

Focus, then, defines the style, and is both necessary and sufficient, but carries with it no implication of narrowness of focus, or of a lack of concern with elements of the curriculum lying outside that focus. A curriculum, any curriculum, will of course contain all three elements: it must have a content, it must have a process, and it must have a context within which it operates, and almost certainly it will pay some attention to all of them. What distinguishes one style type from another is its selection of one of these elements to provide the principal focal element around which the curriculum is structured.

Thus Whitfield (1971), while conceding a place to the other elements, leaves no doubt as to where his focus lies:

> A good paradigm of educational practice *may* include a model of how a child learns, how the aspects of his learning are related, and the kind of social system in which he learns, but it must also include a framework for *what* he learns.

The italics are Whitfield's, and are instructive, as is the distinction between 'may' and 'must'. Compare this with Burns and Brooks (1974), who share a different focus:

> Information would not be excluded from the new curriculum, but the amount would be reduced. Whereas information is now both the means and the end of instruction, it would in most instances be reduced to the role of means only. Information would provide the basic input - the grist - for the development of problem-solving skills.

or with this from Phenix (1974)

> The transcendental perspective is opposed to all outlooks that presuppose a fixed content of knowledge, beliefs, or skills that the learner is meant to acquire. The assumption that anything is knowable with completeness and certainty arrests inquiry and closes the channels that lead on to deeper and wider insight.

The practical application of the typology, at least in the social area of the curriculum, is the province of the next section of this report, and it is the case studies themselves which must provide the extended definition of style types. There is a need, however, at this point for some brief general observations on the styles in practice before we move on to the consideration of specific cases.

A Type I, or expository, style, with its focus on content and a likely emphasis on knowledge as the major learning outcome, is the most traditional of the three basic styles and the one most likely to be encountered in Australian secondary schools. It should not be assumed, however, that Type I styles cannot be innovative, or that an innovative program cannot display a Type I style. The persistent dichotomies of the curriculum debate, and the binocular thinking to which they condition us, are only marginally relevant to what goes on in schools, and should not be allowed to colour too strongly our perception of style types. Nor should we assume that a Type I style necessarily implies a preoccupation with factual information. Concept learning, organizing ideas, thematic structures, can and do feature in Type I programs; although the evidence of the case study schools suggests that factual content is likely to predominate. Likewise there is no justification for assuming that Type I programs are more intellectually demanding than Type II or Type III programs. While this is a persistent stereotype, it is not supported by the evidence of the case study schools.

A Type II, or functional, style, with its focus on process and a likely emphasis on the development of skills, can be a traditional style in some instances - for example, in trade and craft subjects and in some language and mathematics courses. It is only where it occurs in subjects which are traditionally content-based that it appears to be innovative. Thus, while it is unlikely to be the dominant style in most Australian secondary schools, it is likely to occur alongside a Type I style in some of the programs which make up the total school curriculum. Consequently it would be a mistake to equate a Type II style with 'progressive' education - it can employ quite traditional teaching methods - although the case study schools suggest that innovative programs are more likely to be associated with a Type II style than with a Type I style.

A Type III, or situational, style, with its focus on context and a likely emphasis on awareness and experience as the principal outcomes of learning, is probably the least familiar of the three basic style types, and may well be the most difficult for the reader to conceptualize. The context which provides the focus for a Type III style may be specific or local; it may be personal or interpersonal; or it may extend beyond the confines of the school to embrace community or even global considerations; but the distinguishing feature of a Type III style is that one or more of these contexts provide the major focus within which curriculum decisions are made. It would be a mistake to conceptualize a Type III style as being 'unstructured'. As will be evident from the case studies in Section Two of this report, none of the Type III schools in the present study fits this stereotype. Another feature which is most marked in the case study schools, and may well be a general feature of Type III styles, is the strong ideological commitment underlying the school's conception of its function, a concomitant of which is an emphasis on a caring personal relationship with students. An interesting aspect of this feature is that despite the apparent dissimilarity of the underlying ideologies - Catholic/Christian as

Table 2.1 Comparison of Basic Styles with Other Recent Attempts to Classify Curricula

<table>
<tr><th>STYLE</th><th>FUNCTION
(Taba)
1962</th><th>CONCEPTION
(Eisner and Vallance)
1974</th><th>IDEOLOGY
(McDonald)
1974</th><th>BIAS
(Hamilton)
1974</th><th>VALUES ORIENTATION
(Campbell)
1977</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">TYPE I:
EXPOSITORY</td><td rowspan="2">Education as Preserver and Transmitter of the Cultural Heritage</td><td rowspan="2">Academic Rationalist</td><td rowspan="2">. Cultural Transmission
. Romantic</td><td rowspan="2">Content-biased</td><td>Industrial</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Academic</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">TYPE II:
FUNCTIONAL</td><td rowspan="2">Education for Individual Development</td><td rowspan="2">. Cognitive Processes
. Technology</td><td rowspan="2">Developmental</td><td rowspan="2">Organization-biased</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Social</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">TYPE III:
SITUATIONAL</td><td rowspan="2">Education as an Instrument for Transforming Culture</td><td rowspan="2">. Self-Actualization
. Social Reconstruction Relevance</td><td rowspan="2">. Transcendental
. Radical</td><td rowspan="2">Situation-biased</td></tr>
<tr><td>Humanistic</td></tr>
</table>

opposed to radical/humanist, for example - there is a marked similarity in curriculum style.

It was of course recognized in developing the typology that there was likely to be considerable individual variation within any one of these broad basic styles, and that this variation was likely to be evident not only in the definitive element of focus, but also in the elements of the curriculum lying outside that focus. It was clear that there would be a need for a further dimension (or further dimensions) of the classification to take account of this within-style variation, and some thought was given in the initial stages to ways in which positions in the curriculum debate could be so classified. It was clear too that some thought would have to be given to the probable existence of transitional styles (Beethoven, for example, is variously classified as 'classical' or 'romantic'); of mixed or eclectic styles, especially in schools or departments in which individual teachers have a large degree of autonomy in determining their own curriculum; and even of confused or conflicting styles, especially where teachers are forced to follow a curriculum devised by others, and with which they are fundamentally out of sympathy; all of which would pose problems of classification. Such speculations need not concern us here, however, since only the broad basic styles were used in the identification and selection of schools for case study, and the question of within-style differences was suspended to allow the case studies themselves to provide a more empirical basis for tackling these problems. These issues will be taken up again in Section Three of the report.

Comparison with Other Curriculum Classifications

Table 2.1 compares the typology of curriculum style with some other recent attempts to classify curricula on a variety of bases, and suggests that an underlying relationship exists among them. The question may arise as to why I chose to embark on the risky and time-consuming course of developing a new typology rather than choosing one of the existing ready-made classifications. Apart from the advantages I see in a typology based on the concept of style - advantages already argued earlier in this chapter - none of the existing classifications was quite adequate to the requirements of the study.

McDonald's classification on the basis of ideology, and that of Eisner and Vallance on the basis of underlying conception, both offer illuminating insights into the curriculum debate, but they are somewhat less relevant to the actual curriculum as exemplified in the schools, which proceeds independently of, and often impervious to, the concerns of educationists. Taba's classification, while providing a valuable stimulus to my own thinking, involves subjective judgments of values, motives, and aims, and hence did not appear to offer a practical solution to the problem of identifying schools. Campbell's classification on the basis of values orientation involves a similar problem of identifying value systems, and is focused more on teaching style than on curriculum as such; although its relevance to curriculum is clear, as will be seen in the extension to the typology proposed in Section Three of this report. Hamilton's classification according to bias or emphasis was initially much more appealing because it is firmly rooted in curriculum practice, and it will be obvious that it was the starting point in the development of the present typology. Hamilton's classification, however, was developed incidentally, as part of an argument related to his central concern of curriculum evaluation, and he himself describes it as 'tentative and rough-hewn' (Hamilton, 1976). It was clear that it would need considerable elaboration before it could be used as a basis for selecting schools, and it was the attempt initially to provide such an elaboration that led eventually to the development of a different typology based on the concept of curriculum style. The seminal role of Hamilton's classification in the development of the typology is, however, gratefully acknowledged.

SECTION TWO

CURRICULUM STYLE AND SOCIAL LEARNING

Concrete educational experience is the primary source of all inquiry and reflection because it sets the problems, and tests, modifies, confirms or refutes the conclusions of intellectual investigation.

- John Dewey: The Sources of a Science of Education

CHAPTER 3

THE CASE STUDY SCHOOLS

In this section of the report we will be examining the evidence of the case study schools on the two key questions which the study set out to investigate: the nature of the curriculum in social education, and the relationship between curriculum style and the kind of social education that students receive. We will begin this examination with a brief review of the schools selected for case study, a closer look at the programs in social learning of three schools exemplifying the three basic style types identified in the previous section, and an outline of the procedures adopted in the classification of schools by style type.

Identifying and Selecting the Case Study Schools

Twenty schools were selected for case study in the project, ten in New South Wales and ten in Victoria. Schools were selected with a view to providing as wide a range of approaches to the curriculum in social education as possible. In applying the basic typology outlined in Chapter 2 to the task of identifying and selecting appropriate schools for case study, use was made of panels of consultants with an intimate knowledge of the schools in the respective States. In New South Wales the panel comprised personnel from the Education Department's Directorate of Studies; in Victoria membership of the panel was drawn from officers from the Curriculum and Research Branch of the Education Department, method lecturers in the social sciences, and colleagues at the Australian Council for Educational Research.

Members of the panels were sent a document outlining the aims of the study, the concept of curriculum style, and the typology based on it, and were invited to submit the names of three or four schools whose programs in social learning seemed to them to represent good, or at least competent, examples of each of the postulated types, plus three or four schools whose programs in social learning seemed to them to represent 'mixed' styles. Only good or at least competent examples were sought, since it was argued that any comparison of styles emanating from the study would be vitiated if it included poor or incompetent examples of particular styles.

Since the study is specifically concerned with social learning, with a particular emphasis on learning for social competence, the unit for identification was the school's program in social education in Years 7-10 (Forms 1-4), which may or may not be consonant with the style of other areas of the school's curriculum, or with the program in the senior years. The school's program in social education was defined as all those subjects/courses/programs which take as their focus the study of man in his social role, including traditional subjects such as History, Geography, and Economics, as well as the newer integrated or interdisciplinary courses. The study has been concentrated on Years 7 to 10 because education beyond Year 10 is irrelevant to the needs of the majority of young people who have by then left school.

Consultants in both States found considerable difficulty in identifying schools whose total programs in social learning exhibited Type II and Type III styles, although they could readily identify particular programs - for example a social science program existing alongside more traditional subjects in the school - for which a Type II or Type III classification was appropriate. Consultants were generally of the opinion that most schools in both States exhibited either Type I (content-oriented) styles or mixed styles, and the view was expressed that the typology might prove more valuable in distinguishing between programs within schools than between schools themselves. There was a general feeling that many of the schools suggested as Type II or Type III schools would probably turn out to represent mixed styles; and that some of the Type II schools might in fact turn out to be Type I, especially if the emphasis was to be on practice rather than intentions.

In the event a selection of three Type I schools, four Type II schools, and three Type III schools in each State was eventually decided on, it being generally felt that such a selection would provide the best chance of an eventual distribution that would include schools of all three types and would also include schools representing mixed styles.

Being wise after the event, a 3-3-4 initial distribution might have proved more effective; but the selection procedures adopted did in fact provide a reasonable distribution of the three major style types (Table 3.1), as well as providing a variety of examples of mixed styles; although it should be pointed out that the eventual classification of style type did not always correspond to that predicted by the selection panels.

Table 3.1 Distribution of Style Types Among the Case Study Schools

Style Type	Schools	Number
Type I (Expository)	A, B, C, D, E	5
Type II (Functional)	F, G, H, J, K, L	6
Type III (Situational)	M, N, O, P	4
Mixed	Q, R, S, T, U	5
TOTAL		20

The Basic Styles: Three Case Studies

We continue our review of the case study schools with sample case studies of the program in social learning of three schools exemplifying the three basic style types identified in the previous chapter: a Type I, or expository, style; a Type II, or functional, style; and a Type III, or situational, style. In selecting these three schools I have been concerned not so much with providing definitive examples of the particular style types as with illustrating some of the principles and problems of classification as they apply in practice, and with underlining the importance of idiosyncratic elements in contributing to the *individual* style of the school or program. Each case is thus both typical and unique: typical insofar as it exemplifies the characteristics and concerns of a particular style type, unique insofar as it represents a particular individual version of that style arising from the school's efforts to solve its own problems in its own way. It should be remembered that schools have been classified on the basis of their program in social learning, which is not necessarily representative of the school's overall educational program; and that a classification according to focus does not necessarily imply a narrow range of concern, or a lack of concern with other elements of the curriculum. In practice, especially where the unit of analysis is the school's total program in social learning, pure or exclusive examples of style type appear to be relatively unusual. Thus in classifying schools by style type we are talking in most cases about a predominant focus, rarely about an exclusive one.

A Type I, or expository, style, it will be recalled, has been defined as one whose focus, or principal curriculum orientation, is the *content* of the learning; a Type II, or functional, style as one whose focus, or principal curriculum orientation, is the *process* of learning; and a Type III, or situational, style as one whose focus, or principal curriculum orientation, is the *context* in which the learning takes place.

Case Study I: An Expository Style

School A is a large co-educational state high school situated in Sydney's north-western suburbs. The area is predominantly middle to upper middle class, its residents forming two distinctive major groupings: an established affluent group, and a younger, more recent, upwardly-mobile group who have contributed both to the expansion of the area and to a change in its character. The school is relatively new (opened 1972), with a large but declining student population currently in excess of 1100. It considers itself to be a traditional school with an innovative outlook: by which is meant that innovation is encouraged within a basically traditional framework. School uniform is obligatory, and high standards of appearance, behaviour, and academic achievement are encouraged and expected. These values are seen as reflecting community expectations.

School organization, timetabling, and classroom organization conform to a traditional pattern, and classes are streamed according to a 'parallel grading' system - that is, students are allocated to an 'upper' or a 'lower' stream, but classes within each stream are ungraded. This system is currently under review, and changes may be made next year.

Staff allocation and the curriculum are organized according to subject-based departments geographically isolated from one another in modular 'blocks'. Each department has its own staffrooms and most of its teaching takes place in classrooms within its own 'block'. This geographical isolation contributes towards a lack of communication between subject departments and a tendency for factions to form along subject department lines.

The school's program in social learning is centred on the social science (i.e. geography/commerce) and English/history departments with important contributions from the physical education and home science departments. Courses in Years 8 to 10 are currently organized along traditional subject lines. The social science department offers geography, commerce, and Asian social studies, and these three subjects, together with history, provide the main thrust of the school's program in social learning in Years 8-10. None of these subjects is compulsory, however; so that what any individual student learns about his society will depend on the particular subject or combination of subjects he elects to follow. Thus while all students will have a social education component in their course of study, it is not possible, given the predominantly content emphasis and general lack of co-ordination between subject areas, to speak of 'a program of social learning' in the sense that it is a shared program, common to all students. As we shall see below, however, this does not apply to the Year 7 program.

Departmental syllabuses are used in all four subjects and apparently adhered to quite closely, even when they prove unsuitable. While these syllabuses do not necessarily prescribe a content emphasis, they are generally perceived and interpreted by teachers as being discipline-based and content-oriented. As one teacher puts it,

> Usually in their preamble they have very high sounding social aims but then the actual program seems to stress just content material.

This content emphasis does not necessarily imply a lack of concern with process. Most teachers expressed a concern with the development of skills, particularly research skills and skills associated with the orderly presentation of information. But there is a tentativeness and uncertainty in the approach of most teachers to the teaching of skills,

> You look at the content. You can't escape it. It's how your whole mind has been shaped, to look at content, and I find it very, very difficult to approach it in another way with a class, even when I see that that's the way we should be doing it it's very, very difficult to do it. The practical aspect. You know, content's the nice easy way of getting through a lesson and there's no two ways about that. (laughter)

and sometimes a feeling that if you teach the content, the skills will take care of themselves.

> They're incidentals, the skills and the methodology, that I can't focus on so deliberately as I can on content ... You hope the skills will sort of seep through, be absorbed. The osmosis effect. And hope for the best afterwards.

While there are frequent expressions of dissatisfaction with Departmental syllabuses, there is a feeling among teachers that they lack the power, the confidence, and perhaps the competence, to devise satisfactory alternatives.

> I certainly think that the only way you get any status in a public school is if you're going for promotion or if you've achieved promotion. Up to that stage nobody's interested in what you want to do and they're certainly not going to give you the power to do it.
>
> ... and I think also it's not simply the syllabus, but as I said, we're content-based teachers. When you come to a subject and you start teaching and you say, you know: What's in this? Well, you know, the book says such and such, that's what we've got to teach next year.

Those whose promotion positions do give them some power over the curriculum, in their turn, find their efforts to implement change frustrated by internal dissension and rivalries,

> You are confronted by the traditional lines of demarcation between subject areas. I think it's something that's going to take a long while to disappear.

and by external constraints.

> We're under the impression that we've had great degrees of freedom conferred on us, but the distracting thing is that when you get down to the nitty-gritty of it, nowhere have the requirements of the fairly doctrinaire curriculum rules, never have they actually been rescinded. They're still there on paper and they're a decade and a half old but they're still there, and that tends to, you know, dampen your enthusiasm a bit when you start looking for spectacular change.

Thus, while plans are well advanced for a complete restructuring of the school's curriculum in Years 8-10 along lines suggested in the Base Paper on the Total Curriculum[1], recent directives from the Secondary Schools Board have been interpreted by the school as implying that it will have to 'cool it on the module system' and may have to shelve its plans for restructuring the curriculum.

> What has never actually been rescinded is the set of rules which governs the award of the School Certificate - the type of thing which said that to qualify for the award of mathematics each child must study a minimum of fifteen periods over three years. There are those types of 1962 by-laws governing the award of the School Certificate which the Board of Secondary School Studies has never rescinded ... Another problem we are finding is that the Schools Board, having issued the Base Paper, has also put its signature to some documents which almost preclude its implementation.

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[1] The Base Paper on the Total Curriculum (Secondary Schools Board, 1975) was issued as a discussion document by the Secondary Schools Board in April, 1975. Among other things, it suggested a restructuring of the first four years of secondary schooling into two modules, Years 7/8 and Years 9/10, and appeared to signal a move toward school-based curriculum in New South Wales.

Rumours of a return to external examinations at the Year 10 level have further contributed to this air of caution and uncertainty.

The current Year 7 program was intended to be the first year in the progressive introduction, over the next four years, of a restructured curriculum for Years 7-10. The program provides a common curriculum for all students, with a strong emphasis on the basic skills of literacy and numeracy, and with provision for remedial and enrichment courses. The social education component of the curriculum is provided by an 'integrated' course called *Here and Abroad* which begins with a study of the local area, its history, geography, and commerce, and extends to a study of the wider (Sydney) region. The course is multidisciplinary rather than interdisciplinary, a conscious effort being made to retain the identity of the component 'subjects'.

> We feel that we should to some extent keep the identity of the various social science subjects and indeed in this Year 7 and 8 course I've told the teacher to say: Now look here, this is what history is all about ... these are the things that the geographer is interested in ... these are the areas of commerce. We've been very careful not to try to merge the separate subject content into one amorphous thing. We are concerned to point out to them that there are these different subject areas within the whole thing.

It was intended that the course should involve 'a switch to a skills-based approach', and, while it is not yet evident that such a switch has in fact been achieved - this is its first year and teachers are still to some extent finding their way with the course - it is clear that both process and context play a more important role here than in the more traditional courses offered in Years 8-10.

It was planned that this course should continue into Year 8 with a study of Sydney's ethnic communities, branching out into a study of the history, geography and trade patterns of the countries of origin of some of these groups. In view of the current uncertainty about plans to restructure the curriculum, as discussed above, it now seems unlikely that this will happen, although it is possible that some elements of the program will survive.

A subsidiary but significant contribution to the school's program in social learning is provided by courses in health, home science, and careers. Both health, which is taught as part of the physical education program, and home science have a strong emphasis on personal development, interpersonal relationships, and the family. The home science course also has a consumer education component, and a concern with home management. While Departmental syllabuses are again followed, a functional, process-oriented approach is adopted in both courses, with a particular emphasis on practical living skills. A similar emphasis is evident in the careers course, which was introduced this year into the Year 10 course in response to the expressed needs of parents and students. It is interesting to note that while there is obvious overlap among these courses, and between these courses and those offered by the social science department, there is little evidence of collaboration, co-ordination, or the sharing of resources between departments.

Despite the fact that these programs display a Type II style and provide an important extension to the range of concern of the school's program in social learning, their relatively minor status in the program - minor in the sense of the number of periods allocated and/or the number of students reached, not in the value of their contribution - means that in a typology based on focus rather than on range of concern they will have less bearing on the final classification than the major subject areas.

While there is no hesitation in classifying the school's current program in social learning as exhibiting a Type I style, despite the evidence of an extended range of concern - measurement data, interview data, and the content analysis of programs all support a Type I classification - pressure for change undoubtedly exists within the school and evidence of change can already be seen in the introduction of the new Year 7 program and the careers course. It would be premature at this point, however, to conclude that the school is in a stage of transition away from a predominantly Type I style. It is by no means certain that new programs, even if they do eventuate, will bring with them a change of style; and the move towards a genuinely school-based curriculum is itself under threat. Systems do not readily let go; old structures do not give way easily; entrenched attitudes are not transformed overnight.

Thus, while it would not be surprising to find it necessary to reconsider this classification after a year or two, it would be equally unsurprising to find that a Type I classification still stands.

Case Study 2: A Functional Style

School H is a relatively small boys' technical school situated in Melbourne's south-eastern suburbs.[1] The area is predominantly working to lower middle class, with a concentration of light industry. The school belongs to a pattern as yet relatively uncommon but likely to become more common of a small secondary school (about 500 boys) attached to a large new technical and further education complex currently catering for about four and a half thousand full-time and part-time students. Both institutions are co-ordinated under a single principal.

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[1] State secondary education in Victoria is provided by two separate and distinct systems: an academically-oriented secondary (high school) system and a vocationally-oriented technical school system.

This close geographical and organizational connection with a large and expanding TAFE College has important consequences for the secondary school, perhaps the most important being the availability to students of a continuity between secondary and post-secondary education on the same campus and a consequent facilitation in the transition from one to the other. This in turn has important implications for the curriculum in the secondary school. Another consequence is that close contacts between local industry and the TAFE College have a flow-on to the secondary school, perhaps in part accounting for the strong emphasis on careers and employment guidance and the relatively good success rate of the school in placing students in employment.

The school sees itself as basically a traditional school, but as offering encouragement to innovation provided it operates within the traditional framework. School uniform is worn and the school sees itself as embodying traditional educational values approved by parents and the community, with whom close contacts are actively sought. While other schools in the area are experiencing a declining enrolment, School H is growing in numbers, with an expected increase to about 600 next year. This is attributed to a growing interest in technical training in a period of high unemployment, the desire of parents for single-sex education in an area where the schools are predominantly co-educational, and the appeal to parents of the school's basically traditional outlook.

School organization, timetabling, and classroom organization follow basically traditional patterns, although a move towards block timetabling for some grade levels is seen as providing greater flexibility within subject areas. Classes are unstreamed in Years 7-9, but in Year 10 are organized according to vocational intentions into streams closely related to the course divisions of the TAFE College (applied engineering, building studies, business studies, etc.). Some hidden ability streaming results from this division. As is usual in technical schools, classes are small, normally a maximum of 20. Departments are organized on a faculty basis, largely separated from each other geographically, with separate staffrooms and teaching wings. The relative smallness of the school ensures a degree of communication between departments, however, and a school Education Committee on which all departments are represented provides overall co-ordination of the school's program.

The school's program in social learning centres on the humanities department, with important contributions from a specialist careers teacher. A subject extension program provides a number of electives directly related to social education, as well as providing remedial programs in basic subjects.

The humanities department is seen, sometimes with disapproval, as being more innovative than the rest of the school. It embraces the subjects of English and social studies, but it is the department's intention that these should be taught as an integrated humanities course. An administrative requirement for separate assessments for English and social studies to some extent frustrates this intention, and timetabling difficulties in allocating a single humanities teacher for each class have made the move towards complete integration difficult. The degree to which distinctions between the component subjects are made varies from teacher to teacher. For some it is only an arbitrary decision for assessment purposes; for others the distinction is reflected in the conceptualization and the teaching of the program.

Within broad guidelines formulated and agreed to by the whole humanities staff, individual teachers are responsible for developing their own programs. While there appears to be an increasing awareness among humanities staff of a need for greater co-ordination of programs, there is some reluctance to forego the professional autonomy associated with individual responsibility, and some doubts as to the benefits which would accrue.

> Everyone's got their own sort of way of doing something. I'd like to see more of that, but I don't know how I'd go at that sort of co-operation. You know, everyone's got their own problems ...

and

> ... there's just so much involved in the way you relate to kids. Sometimes I wonder about all the work and preparation that's involved, and yet so much hinges on that relationship between teacher and kids ... but that is important. I think teachers do have to work together ... rather than just going off and doing your own thing.

A degree of co-ordination does take place however through the sharing of professional experiences,

> Not like some schools I've been in where teachers do their own thing and never talk to each other. Here there's a lot of talk.

and the introduction this year of block timetabling in some grades has provided the opportunity for greater co-operation between teachers.

> We all know what each other is doing, and often we do the same things.

A poster in the humanities staff room proclaims:

> Humanities is learning how to understand oneself/understand society/participate in society.

This tripartite aim is echoed in department documents, and it is clear that the humanities staff in general subscribe to it and to its process emphasis on 'learning how'. The vocational nature of the school means that the curriculum is not subject to the downward pressure of the Higher School Certificate evident in more academically-oriented schools, and the absence of certification pressures at the Year 10 level in Victoria frees it from some of the problems encountered by School A (Case Study I). To some extent these pressures are replaced by an awareness of the importance to most students of qualifying for apprenticeship, and this may account for the strong emphasis on language skills as the key to the realization of the department's aims. Social education through language - or, alternatively, language development through social education - provides a unifying thread running through the individual programs of different teachers, and there is little doubt this language emphasis forms the core of an evident concern with the development of skills.

> To this end the humanities program aims to provide students with as many opportunities as possible for them to participate in all modes of language behaviour in a wide range of language situations, emphasizing the development of social education skills which enable the students to develop as independent learners and decision makers in society.

While the importance of content is not ignored, it is clearly seen as a means to an end,

> If I'm planning something I tend to think of a skill and then think of how I can work material into that ...

and there is a concern that the content should be relevant to the needs and interests of the students:

> ... not that they choose the topics, but there's meeting room.

Problems associated with the transition from school to work receive special attention in Year 10 courses. This is partly tackled by the provision of courses in personal development, careers, and driver education as electives in the subject extensions program, partly by a conscious emphasis in the Year 10 humanities programs on 'survival' or coping skills. Of particular interest here is the introduction this year of a special program for boys who would otherwise have left school without having achieved apprenticeship entry standard in the basic skills. The boys in this group spend two days a week in part-time employment and three days a week in a special program designed to bring them up to the minimum level of competence required for apprenticeship entry, particularly in the basic skills of language and number. While this program has not been without its teething troubles and frustrations, there is a clear commitment among staff involved to making it work as a positive contribution to the problem of the unemployable.

A well-organized resource bank provides an extensive range of materials on course construction, units of work, and materials development. While this is valued by most teachers as an *ideas* resource, the most frequent complaint of humanities teachers is the lack of an adequate range of *material* resources to enable them to mount the kind of programs they feel are needed.

An important additional contribution to the school's program in social learning is provided by a full time careers teacher who works in close co-operation with the humanities department. Careers does not at this stage have the status of a full subject in the program, but direct teaching in careers education is carried out through the subject extensions program, and a brief course for intending leavers forms part of the humanities program for Year 10 students. These courses focus on self-assessment, realistic job aspirations, the skills involved in choosing a career and successful job hunting, and encouraging students to research thoroughly for themselves all aspects of their career choices.

This year a work experience program is being introduced after a successful pilot scheme last year. All Year 10 students will spend one week during second term on direct work experience, and this initiative constitutes the main thrust this year in the evolution of a more effective careers education program for all students. Lunchtime talks with invited speakers provide an additional component of the careers program, but these have not been well attended. In addition, the careers teacher offers individual advice and guidance to students on career choices, and has been instrumental in securing jobs for a number of students. An interesting initiative is the provision of a daily print-out of Commonwealth Employment Service vacancies which is available to students. Many have obtained jobs through this up-to-the-minute resource.

The program in social learning at School H presents no real problems of classification, despite the school's perception of itself as traditional. The focus of the humanities department is clearly on process, and there is general agreement among teachers that

> ... the core of the course is the skills that are being developed, not the content covered.

The careers component displays a similar process emphasis. This Type II, or functional, style is no doubt partly a product of the school's vocational emphasis, but is also partly a result of the innovative outlook of the humanities staff.

Case Study 3: A Situational Style

School M is a small independent school situated in Sydney's north-western suburbs but drawing its students from all over the metropolitan area. The school was set up in 1970 as a 'senior secondary school for world living', with the aims of the school expressed in the following 'ten points of policy':

1 To provide an atmosphere suitable to co-operative and quiet study.

2 To provide special opportunities for those students who may wish to become teachers, diplomats, statesman, journalists, business executives, world traders, television personnel; in short, to influence those who will influence others.

3 To foster a knowledge of Australia and an awareness of her problems and her responsibilities particularly in relationship with Papua-New Guinea and her Asian neighbours.

4 To develop the study of Asian culture either through specific study of Asian languages and Asian history, as provided for in the syllabuses for matriculation courses, or through 'General Studies'.

5 To give special care and guidance to Asian and other overseas students.

6 To promote the study of world literature, art, religions, political systems and ethical and social codes.

7 To develop a sense of responsibility amongst students and an awareness of their duties by encouraging them to share in the organization and cultivation of the school.

8 To provide close contact with a neighbouring university ... and so to make easier the transition from secondary to tertiary education.

9 To provide matriculation courses and university entrance,

10 To create a centre of work and thought where students of all ages may share and enjoy the facilities of the school.

In the nine years since the school's inception several important changes have taken place, but it has not been considered necessary to make changes to these original aims.

> There has certainly been a great change of emphasis but no real change in direction that was not allowed for in the original concept.

The most important of these changes from the point of view of the present study was the addition of a junior school in 1977 with the enrolment of classes in Years 7 and 8. The school currently provides classes in Years 7, 8, and 9 in addition to the senior school, and will have its first Year 10 in 1979. It is with the curriculum in social learning in the junior school that we are concerned in the present study, but this must be seen in the light of the development of the senior school to 1977 since this provided the setting into which the junior school was established and in a very important sense determined its style. The junior school curriculum must be seen, then, as an extension into the junior years of a style which, while by no means established in any static or inflexible sense, was certainly already well developed.

A second major change in emphasis has resulted from the fact that the school failed to attract the complement of overseas students that had originally been hoped for, so that the concept of an international school which was itself an international community of scholars has perforce been largely abandoned, although this has in no way weakened the concept of internationalism and 'world living' that lies at the core of the school's philosophy. Rather the concept has been redirected towards the needs of the Australian students who make up the bulk of the school's present enrolment.

A third major change in emphasis is a gradual shift towards a more open school climate than was originally envisaged, - 'the move has been towards A.S. Neill and away from Tagore' - although it is important to emphasize that the school does not see itself as a 'progressive school' in the established sense of that term.

> The students themselves have placed an emphasis on the value of a small school and small classes, on informality, on discussion and 'enquiry' rather than competition, on personal relationships between students and teachers ...
> ... Within that atmosphere our task is still the pursuit excellence and the doing of some work for the betterment of the school society, the national society, the world society.

The expectations of parents have also had an important influence on this development, since there is little doubt that parents choosing to send their children to the school see it as offering a freer, more open alternative to traditional schooling - which it certainly does - and that this perhaps more than the school's international philosophy is what initially attracts students to it.

> ... and then a certain idea of the school develops, even though it is different to what I planned.

It is a mark of the flexibility and responsiveness of the school that it has been able to change to meet these perceived expectations. The close personal relationship that has developed between teachers and students - a relationship that was extended easily and naturally to a visiting researcher who quickly found himself a part of the school community - is undoubtedly aided by the school's policy of limiting enrolment to one class of 20 students at each year level.

> There's a great deal of affection about the place, there's a great deal of love about it, and that part of the philosophy is just how easy it is to love your fellow man and hate your next door neighbour ... The parents tell us that whatever else we do with them we do make them easier to live with.

A mark of the commitment of teachers to the concept of a small school is that many of them are working at salary levels lower than they could command elsewhere in the independent system, finding their reward in the professional satisfaction they achieve.

> There's so much more chance here with the small numbers of being able to do something for these kids, and when they're by and large motivated kids anyway. By and large. It's very rewarding.

This openness and informality should not be seen however as implying a lack of structure, or a lack of concern with academic achievement.

> We are an academically oriented school and nobody pretends otherwise. We're not at all a progressive school in the sense of being unstructured and the kids learn what they want to learn, we're not at all like that. There are formal programs written for everything because, I suppose, well, we believe that formal instruction - they're expected to know such a lot by the time they leave school that the

> easiest way to comply with what society wants is through a lot of formal schooling. Although within that formalism there's a great deal of freedom. And the school stresses the international aspect a great deal.

The school attaches considerable importance to its Higher School Certificate results, mainly because it sees them as being important to the students and to their parents:

> You see, we are tied in New South Wales to the Higher School Certificate, and sure if you don't want your child to do Higher School Certificate that's fine but they have very little chance of getting a rewarding career unless they leave the traditional society and become subsistence farmers or cultivators somewhere. But if they're going to stay within the traditional society they need that piece of paper, hate it though I do ... Parents who send their kids here would be mostly middle class parents who have aspirations for their children and who see the Higher School Certificate, tertiary education, as being essential.

and the school is conscious of this eventual hurdle in its approach to the curriculum in the junior school.

> While they're being expected to learn and to work and to devote themselves to formalities of expression and mathematics and, you know, the things that so many people are telling us are disappearing from the schools, we're emphasizing correctness and study and formalities in learning in the juniors but they are very much freer than they would be in any other school apart from the so-called progressives. And they still can come and say 'Hi, Bill', which is very important to some of them. Very important. Yet it seems such a triviality ...

The school's program in social learning, in the junior school, is centred on social studies, language studies, and *Family of Man* (international understanding); although clearly the whole atmosphere, context, and philosophy of the school is geared towards the social education of the students, and may well be more important in this regard than the specific subject components.

Social studies is basically an integration of history and geography, but there is a conscious effort to tie it in with other subjects in the school curriculum wherever possible, particularly language, mathematics, and science. While concept development and skill acquisition are seen as important, the major emphasis is on understanding, tolerance, empathy, and through these, an awareness of diversity and change,

> ... you don't so much have to help them cope with change as make them aware of change ...

the whole course being very much conceived within the shool's philosophy of internationalism and education for world living.

> I still think that there's far too much teaching going on that is irrelevant. Far too much of the itsy-bitsy academic geography and history and far too little training for life, for living, for the world community. But here it's different. Here we are trying to make them fully conscious of the fact that they are only a little part of a great community, that they are members of one people, one world.

The focus in Years 7 and 8 is on the Third World, particularly Latin America and Africa, and in Years 9 and 10 on the major world power blocs. This is seen as being more relevant to living in the modern world than the traditional focus on Europe and Australia.

The school's special emphasis is enshrined in a subject referred to in the school's prospectus as International Understanding, but known more familiarly within the school as *Family of Man*. It is still to some extent a subject in search of a definition, but

> ... the emphasis is ... in the awareness, responsibility, involvement; in the concept of, well, there are so many cliches around now, the 'global village' will do us as well as any, I think. And being profoundly and deeply and utterly convinced that if we don't live together we've got to die together, or we *will* die together, that we could even be as silly as the dinosaurs. I don't think we are, but it is quite possible, and I think that school learning should be creating a greater awareness all the time of this problem. Now that's gut talk, see. And as it is so, well then, I should be doing more and more about it, and so I should be devoting myself more to lessons in the *Family of Man*, right?

The approach to the subject has been largely through the study of world literature, art, religions, and philosophies, with a special emphasis on myths and legends and the philosophy of Rabindranath Tagore, but the subject is still evolving and there is considerable debate within the school as to how it might best be approached in the junior school.

The rationale for the inclusion of language studies - specifically Indonesian and Japanese - in the school's curriculum is for the contribution they can make to the school's internationalist philosophy of an education for world living. The language teachers, however, while hoping that they are contributing to this overall aim, very much see a value in the discipline of language study itself, and it is doubtful whether there is much more emphasis on the cultural aspect than is frequently encountered in language teaching today.

Activities programs, which take place at a bush property owned by the school and incorporate guidance, physical education, and personal development, are also important to the program in social learning offered by the school.

The very wide range of concern indicated by these programs raises the question of whether a Type III classification is in fact appropriate, or whether the school should perhaps be considered as displaying a mixed style. Close examination of the data however consistently reveals the central role of the school's international philosophy in defining the school's 'special emphasis':

> What it became and what it still is and will be more so, I think, is an internationally minded school. I think that emphasis will grow.

That this special emphasis may be more a question of aspiration than realization is frankly and freely admitted:

> The school is an internationally minded school in the same way that PLC is a Presbyterian Ladies' College, and perhaps just as successful in turning out world citizens as Kings is at turning out Christian gentlemen. They tell me this is their ideal. And while I realize that I haven't turned out many world citizens I don't know whether Christian gentlemen are not as rare as hen's teeth, too ...

but there is little doubt that it provides the focus for decisions related to the evolving curriculum in the junior school, especially in the social area of that curriculum, and defines the direction of desired development: in other words, that it provides the special *context* within which the school's curriculum is determined.

Classification of Schools By Style Type

It will be clear from the sample case studies that the classification of school programs in social education is seldom straightforward, the data seldom unequivocal. It may not be quite so obvious that the classification of individual programs within the school's total program in the main presents fewer difficulties, and is a prerequisite to any attempt at overall classification. Individual program classifications were based on the analysis of interview data and program documents, including textbooks and examination papers where these were available. The contribution of individual programs to the school's overall program can be quantified by means of time allocation (number of periods) and the number of students affected, and this procedure was followed for all case study schools before the overall program was classified by style type. Final classifications were carefully checked against teacher and student perceptions of the school's program in social learning (see Chapter 6). If it is remembered that classification by style type involves classification by major focus, it will be appreciated that these procedures, if carefully followed, do permit accurate classification of the school's overall program by style type. It should also be clear from the sample case studies that *ad hoc* classifications on the basis of superficial characteristics are likely to prove misleading.

CHAPTER 4

THE CURRICULUM IN SOCIAL LEARNING

The curriculum does not exist as a single objective phenomenon, but rather as a complex series of events and interactions which will vary according to one's perspective on them and one's perceptions of them. Goodlad (1977) has identified

> ... at least five distinct curricula with varying perceptions within each classification: ideal, or what some planning group has proposed as an alternative; formal, or what some controlling agency has prescribed; perceived, or what teachers (and others) think it is; operational, or what can be observed, at least in its outward manifestations; and experienced, or what the student relates to. (Goodlad, 1977:5)

Without directly adopting Goodlad's five categories, the present study has made use of his insight; and it will be clear that the Goodlad categories have been seminal to the approach adopted. This and succeeding chapters will attempt to bring together three different *perspectives* - those of the teacher, the student, and the outside observer (in this case the researcher) - on three different *aspects* of the curriculum in social learning: the *ideal* curriculum, or what ought to be taught; the *planned* curriculum, or what it is intended to teach; and the *operative* curriculum, or what is actually perceived to be taught in practice. No one of these differing perspectives and aspects can uniquely claim to represent the 'true' curriculum. Each in its own way is legitimate; each in its own way is valid; and each in its own way is limited. The views of teachers and students may suffer from an inability to distance themselves sufficiently from the event to see it clearly. The outside observer's view may have the advantage of being more objective; but it suffers from being less authentic. The operative curriculum may appear to be more 'real', but its reality cannot exclude the planning that gave rise to it or the aspirations against which it is judged. Together these varying perspectives and aspects can help us towards a better understanding of that complex phenomenon we call the curriculum than a more limited approach could provide.

The Instruments

The views of teachers and students were obtained by a combination of measurement and interview techniques. The instruments used for the measurement of teacher and student perspectives, which will provide the main focus

Table 4.1 Summary Grouping of Items of Social Learning Included in the Teacher and Student Measures

KNOWLEDGE	1a	FACTUAL	traditional subjects
	1b		contemporary society
	1c		everyday life
	2a	CONCEPTUAL	traditional subjects
	2b		newer social sciences
	2c		contemporary society
SKILLS	3	COGNITIVE	inquiry
	4		decision-making
	5		methodology
	6	INTERACTIVE	personal
	7		social
VALUES	8	SOCIAL VALUES	community
	9		democratic
	10		humanitarian

of our attention in this chapter, were Part B of a questionnaire for teachers, and a set of Q-sort cards for students. Each instrument contained ten questions, the first two of which each contained three items, making a total of fourteen items in all. The items on each instrument were parallel, but to facilitate communication across a range of ability levels the language on the Q-sort cards was simplified and examples were provided to illustrate each item. The items were designed to provide a broad overview of the relative emphasis placed on different facets of social learning in the schools' programs, and to explore the relationship between these relative emphases and curriculum style.

Both instruments are reproduced in full in Appendix I, but for ease of interpretation of the curriculum profiles discussed in this and succeeding chapters the items can be summarized and grouped as set out in Table 4.1.

Teachers were asked to rate each item on a four-point scale according to the importance attached to it in their program:

1	very important
2	important
3	of minor importance
4	unimportant

Provision was made for each item to be rated three times, once to represent the ideal program, once to represent the program as planned, and once to represent the program in practice; although teachers were only required to make separate ratings for items on which they actually perceived differences to occur between their ideal, their planned, and their operative programs.

Students were asked to arrange the Q-sort cards into three piles designated 'very important', 'important', and 'unimportant, or of little importance'. Two sets of Q-sort cards, each of a different colour, were arranged by each student: one to represent his/her perception of the ideal curriculum in social learning, and one to represent his/her perception of the school's operative program in social learning. The completed sets of arranged cards were collected and recorded later by the researcher.

For purposes of comparison, categories 3 and 4 of the teacher questionnaire were collapsed to form a single 'unimportant/of minor importance' category, and the responses of both groups were scored on a 2-1-0 scale for 'very important', 'important', and 'unimportant/of minor importance' respectively.

The Curriculum Profiles

In exploring the relative emphases placed on these various facets of social learning, and the differing perspectives of these relative emphases, data have been prepared as curriculum profiles based on mean ratings for each item. In comparing profiles, use has been made of two measures of profile similarity, the *product moment correlation* (r) and the *distance measure* (D).

The product moment correlation is useful, since it provides us with a measure of the degree of similarity between the *shape* of the two profiles; in other words the relative emphasis placed by the two schools or styles or perspectives being compared on the various facets of social learning represented by the items. What the correlation coefficient does not tell us, however, is the degree of similarity in the *level* of emphasis accorded the various items of social learning. This is where the distance measure (D) can provide us with valuable additional information, since it takes into account level and dispersion as well as shape (Nunnally, 1967). By making use of both of these measures, the correlation coefficient and the distance measure, we have a simple but effective method of comparing profiles.

While correlation coefficients are readily interpretable, distance measures are less so, since they are dependent on the measurement scale being used and the number of items in the profiles being compared. For the curriculum profiles being compared in the present study, distance measures could range, theoretically, between 0 and 7.48, the measure that would occur if one profile rated all items as very important (2) and the other rated all items as unimportant or of minor importance (0). In practice, distance measures in the present study range between 0.26 and 2.47; so that, for purposes of interpretation of profile similarity, we can consider distance measures less than 0.50 as representing relatively small differences in the level of emphasis accorded the various items of social learning, and distance measures greater than 2.00 as representing relatively large differences in level of emphasis.

The Samples

The teacher sample was composed of 91 teachers comprising three to six teachers from each school, depending on the size of the school and the extent of the school's program in social learning in Years 7 to 10. While the selection of teachers was not purely random, being dependent on the willingness of teachers to co-operate in the study, care was taken to ensure that it was representative and consisted only of teachers actively engaged in teaching the programs in the classroom. The student sample consisted of 1079 students comprising at least one Year 9 class and one Year 10 class from each school. In some of the smaller schools all Year 9 and 10 students were included; in larger schools classes were selected as being representative of the respective years. While the selection of classes was dependent on the convenience of the school and the realities of timetabling, care was taken to ensure that classes were not atypical. Years 9 and 10 were chosen because they represent students at a point when all or most of the intake group are still at school and have had enough experience of the school's program to have developed informed opinions.

A Teacher Perspective

Figure 4.1 represents a teacher perspective on the curriculum in social learning in each of its three aspects, the ideal curriculum (I), the planned curriculum (P), and the operative curriculum (O). It will be immediately clear from the graph that the teachers in our sample perceive very little conflict between their ideal, their planned, and their operative programs so far as the relative importance they attach to the various items of social learning is concerned, and this is reflected in the high correlations between the three pairs of profiles. These correlations are recorded in the top

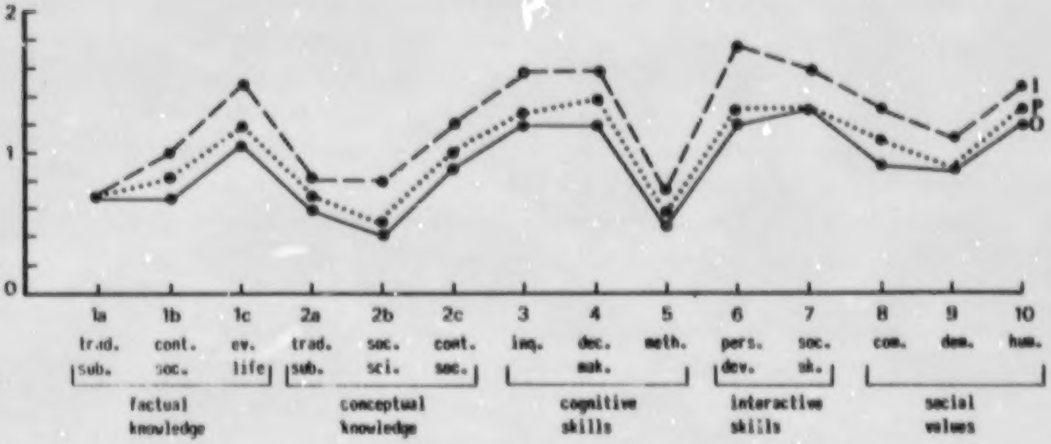

Figure 4.1 The Curriculum in Social Learning: A Teacher Perspective

Profile Similarity:

	I	P	O	
I		0.97	0.95	r
P	*0.94*		0.99	
O	*1.87*	*0.36*		
	D			

right-hand segment of the matrix appearing immediately below Figure 4.1 under the heading *Profile Similarity*. Here we find that, from the perspective of the teachers, the correlation between the ideal curriculum in social learning and the planned curriculum in social learning is 0.97; the correlation between the planned curriculum in social learning and the operative curriculum in social learning is 0.99; and the correlation between the ideal curriculum in social learning and the operative curriculum in social learning is 0.95. Bearing in mind that a correlation of one (r = 1.00) represents perfect agreement, it will be clear that these correlations represent a very high degree of agreement indeed between teachers' perceptions of the relative emphasis placed on the various items of social learning in their ideal, their planned, and their operative curriculum. Not unexpectedly, the highest agreement is between the planned and the operative curriculum, with slightly less agreement between the ideal and the operative curriculum.

Despite this very close agreement in relative emphasis, there is an obvious difference in the *level* of emphasis accorded the various items in the three profiles. Apart from factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a), where the level of emphasis achieved in practice accords with that planned for and considered ideal, the three profiles reflect the predictable gap between human aspirations and human achievement, with the planned program falling somewhat short of the ideal, and the operative program falling somewhat short of the planned. These differences in level of emphasis are reflected in the distance measures recorded in the bottom left-hand segment of the matrix previously referred to. As we might expect, the gap is greatest between the ideal curriculum and the operative curriculum (D = 1.27) and least between the planned curriculum and the operative curriculum (D = 0.36). Again as we might expect, the gap between the ideal and the operative is greater on some items than on others. It is most marked on personal development (item 6), and least marked on items dealing with knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a, 5) and the development of democractic values (item 9).

A Student Perspective

When we turn to our student sample's perception of the ideal and the operative curriculum in social learning (Figure 4.2) we find a rather different picture. In contrast to the high level of agreement found in the teacher sample on the relative emphasis placed on the various items of social learning in the ideal and the operative curriculum (r = 0.95), we find a marked conflict between the emphases of the students' ideal curriculum and the emphases of the operative curriculum as they perceive it, and this is reflected in the relatively low correlation between the two profiles (r = 0.22). As we shall see more clearly later in the chapter, this contrast between teacher and student perceptions lies more in conflicting perceptions of the operative curriculum than in conflicting perceptions of the ideal.

While students see the operative curriculum in social learning as underemphasizing most items, particularly factual information related to everyday living in society (item 1c), inquiry, decision-making, and social skills (items 3, 4, 7) and personal development (item 6), they see it as overemphasizing others, especially factual and conceptual knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a). They also perceive a somewhat greater gap between the ideal and the operative curriculum than do teachers, and this is reflected in the larger distance measure (D = 1.62, as compared with D = 1.27 for the teacher sample). It is interesting to note here that, while there is reasonable agreement between the teacher and student samples on the gap between the ideal and the operative on a number of items, they differ most in their perception of the importance attached to traditional subject knowledge in the operative curriculum.

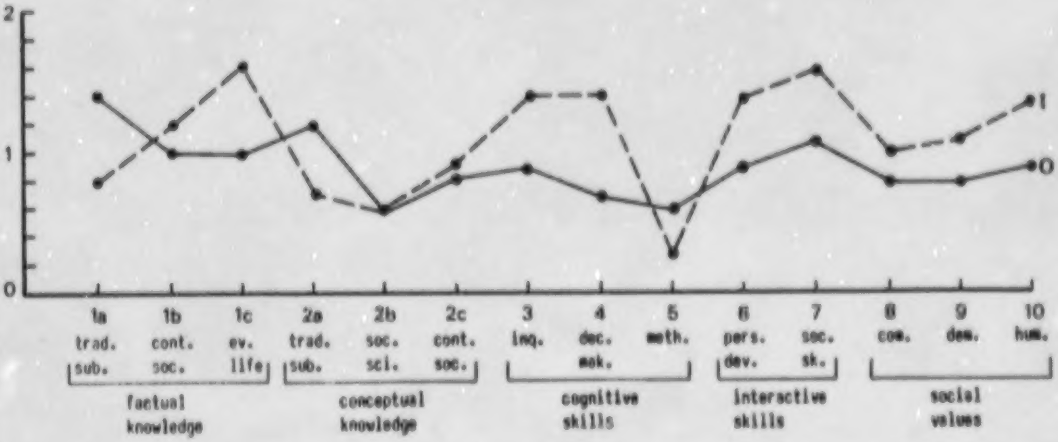

Figure 4.2 The Curriculum in Social Learning: A Student Perspective

Profile Similarity: r = 0.22
D = 1.62

The Ideal Curriculum

Perceptions of the ideal curriculum in social learning present very few problems of interpretation. There is a surprising amount of agreement between teachers and students as to what should be taught; the problems arise later when we come to consider what is taught.

Figure 4.3 compares the perceptions of our teacher sample (T) with those of our student sample (S) on the ideal curriculum in social learning. It will be immediately obvious from the profiles that there is substantial agreement between the two groups on the relative priorities to be accorded the various elements of social learning covered by the items, and this is reflected in the relatively high correlation coefficient (r = 0.88) and the moderate distance measure (D = 0.88). Students attach slightly more importance to the acquisition of factual knowledge (items 1a, 1b, 1c) and slightly less importance to most of the other items than teachers do, with the greatest differences occurring in the importance attached to methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5) and personal development (item 6).

There is general agreement that the most important elements of social learning are those concerned with factual information related to the practical exigencies of everyday life (item 1c), inquiry and decision-making skills

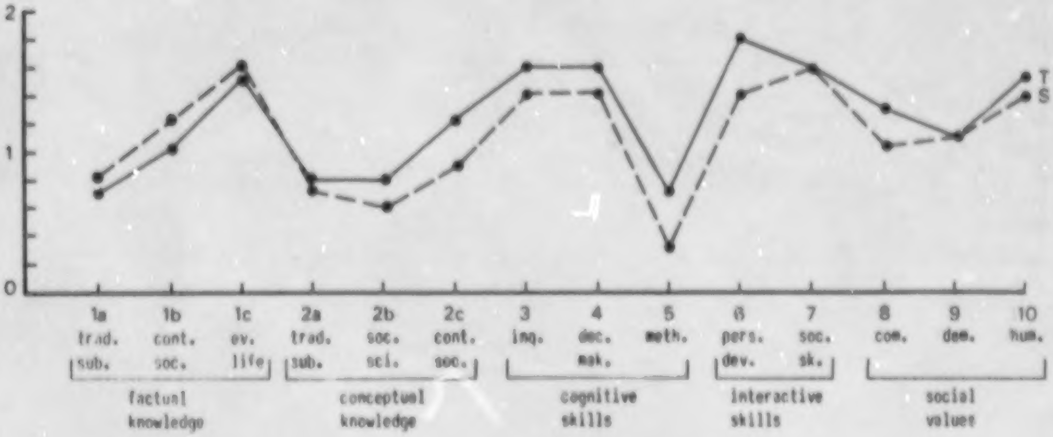

Figure 4.3 Perspectives on the Ideal Curriculum

Profile Similarity: r = 0.88
D = 0.88

(items 3 and 4), personal development and social skills (items 6, 7), and humanitarian values (item 10); while the least important elements are those concernod with knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a, 5) and with conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b). This order of priorities is of particular interest to the curriculum debate, since it is precisely those items which are least valued by both teachers and students which are central to the argument of the 'disciplines' school in the curriculum debate:

> We should therefore ground our curricular objectives in the distinctive disciplines of knowledge, rather than in social needs, theories of personality, or in a notional base knowledge for 'living in the modern world'. For it is the disciplines themselves which *predetermine* these important factors, as well as our underlying ethical conception of what is good and what is worthwhile. (Whitfield, 1971)

We will see this pattern of priorities repeated with minor modifications in our discussion of the planned and the operative curriculum. It would appear that the central concerns of the advocates of the 'disciplines' as the basis for curriculum structure are not reflected in the schools, either actually or ideally, despite their considerable influence in the curriculum debate and in the determination of syllabuses.

In basing our profiles on mean ratings we are of course obscuring a great deal of possible variation in perception, both between schools and between individuals within schools. One way of economically describing this variation is by the use of a statistic known as the *variance*. Tables of means and variances for all items discussed in this section can be found in Appendix II, and our discussions of variability in this and succeeding chapters are based on the data in these tables.

As might be expected, there is considerable variation in the perceptions of individual teachers (Table A2.1) and students (Table A2.2) of the ideal curriculum in social learning. For teachers, variances range from 0.23 to 0.51, with a mean item variance of 0.40. Variances for students are a little higher, ranging from 0.32 to 0.62, with a mean item variance of 0.52. When we come to look at variability between schools as distinct from variability between individuals, we find much less disparity. For teachers, between school variances range between 0.07 and 0.23, with a mean item variance of 0.13. Between school variances for students are even lower, ranging between 0.01 and 0.05, with a mean item variance of 0.03.

The most important implication of these patterns of variance is that, while variations in perceptions of the ideal curriculum in social learning do occur, most of the variability, especially among students, occurs between individuals within schools rather than between schools. Putting it another way, there is a range of opinions about the ideal curriculum in social learning, and within any one school a similar range of opinions is likely to be encountered, especially among students, despite differences in the type of school and the styles of the curriculum adopted.

Items producing the greatest variability in perceptions among teachers are items associated with conceptual knowledge (items 2a, 2c). Among students the greatest variability is produced by the development of decision-making skills (item 4) and a sense of community (item 8). Between school variances are highest, for teachers, on inquiry skills (item 3) and knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a), and for students on developing a sense of community (item 8). The items producing the most consistently low pattern of variance both within and between schools and for both teachers and students are the development of social skills (item 7), which both groups are agreed in according a high priority, and methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5), which both groups are agreed in according a low priority.

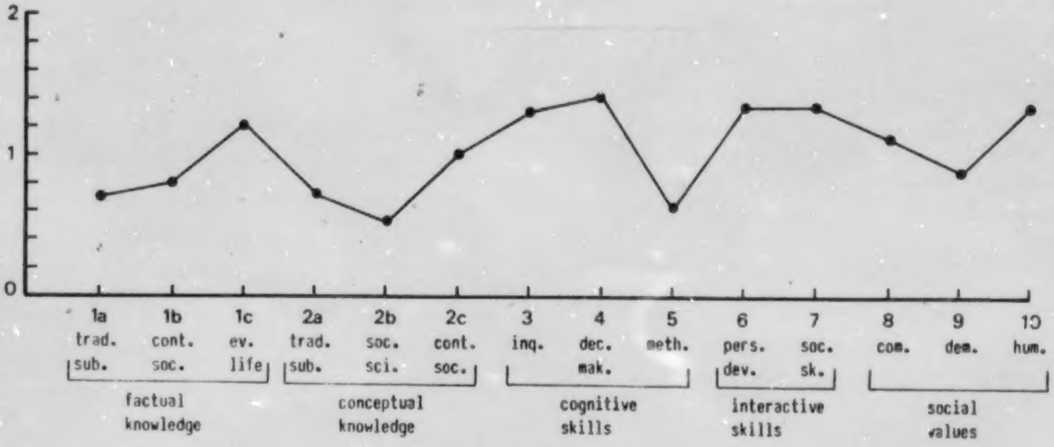

Figure 4.4 The Planned Curriculum: A Teacher Perspective

The Planned Curriculum

When we turn from the ideal to the planned curriculum in social learning we are dealing with the perceptions of teachers only, since it was considered unlikely that students in most schools would have sufficient acquaintance with curriculum planning to make an informed judgment on it. As we would expect from the high correlation between teacher perspectives of the ideal and the planned curriculum noted earlier ($r = 0.97$), the relative emphases placed on the various items of social learning remain much the same as those observed in our discussion of the ideal curriculum, although the profile itself is a little flatter (Figure 4.4). Inquiry, decision-making, and social skills (items 3, 4, 7), personal development (item 6), and humanitarian values (item 10) continue to receive the highest priorities, while conceptual knowledge related to the newer social sciences (item 2b) and methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5) continue to receive the lowest priorities.

Item variances (Table A2.3) are a little higher than for the ideal curriculum, but maintain a similar overall pattern. Reasonably large variations occur between individual teachers on their ratings of items, with item variances ranging between 0.36 and 0.68, with a mean item variance of 0.49. Relatively high variances occur on personal development (item 6) and developing a sense of community (item 8), while relatively low variances occur on factual knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 5) and conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b).

Once again between school variances are considerably lower than variances between individual teachers, although they are higher than between school variances for the ideal curriculum. Putting this another way, there is more variation between schools in the planned curriculum than there is in their perceptions of the ideal curriculum. This in turn suggests some variation between schools in their success in incorporating their aims into their planning, at least insofar as these aims and plans are perceived by teachers. Between school variances for items in the planned curriculum range between 0.09 and 0.23, with a mean item variance of 0.17. Highest variances are recorded for inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4) and developing a sense of community (item 8), while lower variances are recorded for methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5) and conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b).

The Operative Curriculum

When we come to consider the operative curriculum in social learning we are dealing both with the area of most disagreement and with the area of most importance, since it reflects what is actually happening in the schools in relation to social learning. In contrast to the relatively high level of agreement between teachers and students on the ideal curriculum, their perceptions of the operative curriculum (Figure 4.5) differ markedly, especially in the relative emphasis given to the various items (r = 0.13). Students generally perceive a much higher emphasis on knowledge, especially knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a), and a generally lower emphasis on other items, especially decision-making skills (item 4), than do teachers.

For students, the main emphasis of the operative curriculum in social learning is on knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a), whereas for teachers it is on skills (items 3, 4, 7), personal development (item 6), and humanitarian values (item 10). Both groups are agreed on the lower ratings given to conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b) and methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5).

Item variances for both students and teachers are somewhat higher than they were on the ideal curriculum, but reveal similar patterns. For teachers

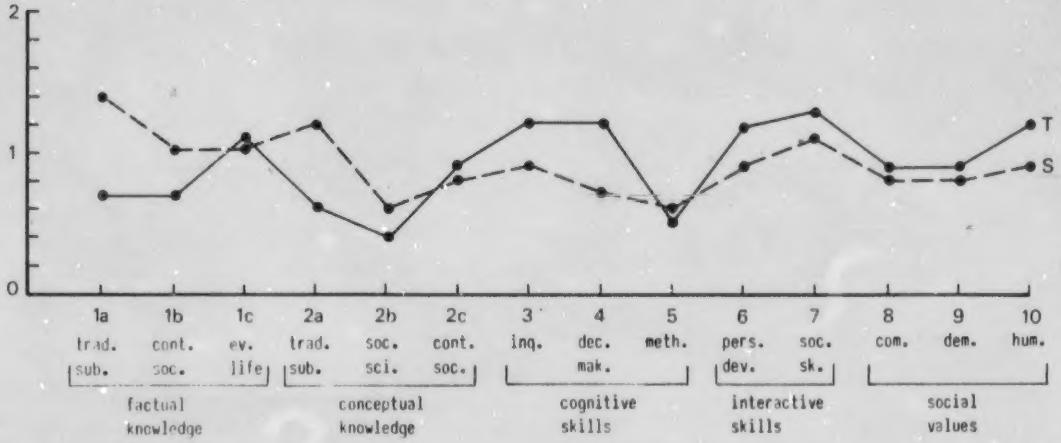

Figure 4.5 Perspectives on the Operative Curriculum

Profile Similarity: r = 0.13
D = 1.18

(Table A2.4) they are very similar to those observed in the planned curriculum, ranging from 0.31 to 0.73, with a mean item variance of 0.50. For students (Table A2.5) they are somewhat higher, ranging from 0.53 to 0.74, with a mean item variance of 0.64. Between school variances for teachers range between 0.08 and 0.32, with a mean item variance of 0.18, and for students they range between 0.03 and 0.12, with a mean item variance of 0.08. Thus while the variability between schools in perceptions of the operative curriculum is somewhat larger than it was for the ideal curriculum, it is still for most items considerably less than the variations in perception between individuals within schools.

Items producing the greatest variability among both students and teachers are decision-making skills (item 4), personal development (item 6), and factual information related to the practical exigencies of everyday life (item 1c). Between schools variability is greatest, from a teacher perspective, on inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4) and, from a student perspective, on personal development (item 6) and factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a). The items producing the most consistently low pattern of variance both within and between schools and for both teachers and students are conceptual knowledge related to the newer social sciences (item 2b) and methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5). This consistency of perception suggests that the 'newer' social sciences and an emphasis on methodology in the teaching of the traditional subjects, both of which have provided the focus for much recent curriculum development in social education - the SEMP materials and the SGEP and SHEP projects in Victoria, for example[1] - have made little headway into the operative curriculum in social learning in the schools, at least insofar as our twenty case study schools are concerned.

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[1] The Social Education Materials Project (SEMP) is a major initiative of the Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra, in the production of resources for social education. The Secondary Geographical Education Project (SGEP) and the Secondary Historical Education Project (SHEP) are discipline-oriented curriculum projects emanating from the Curriculum and Research Branch of the Victorian Education Department.

The Curriculum in Social Learning

Throughout this chapter we have been progressively accumulating evidence on the curriculum in social learning. On the basis of this evidence we are in a position to make a number of general observations, at least insofar as our twenty case study schools are concerned, on the primary aim of the study, the nature of the curriculum in social education in Australian schools.

The evidence of the case study schools suggests that there is reasonable agreement between teachers and students, and between schools, on the ideal curriculum in social learning. This ideal curriculum gives a high priority to relevant knowledge, inquiry and decision-making skills, personal development, social skills, and social values. It gives a relatively low priority to knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects, and to the newer social sciences. Similar emphases are evident in the planned curriculum, but are somewhat less marked, the greatest discrepancy occurring in the emphasis given to personal development.

In contrast to the reasonably high level of agreement between teachers and students on the ideal curriculum in social learning, there are marked differences in their perceptions of the operative curriculum. Students see the major emphasis of the operative curriculum in social learning as being squarely on knowledge in the traditional subjects, while teachers see it as being on skills, personal development, and social values. They are somewhat more in agreement on the relatively high emphasis given to the development of social skills, and the relatively low emphasis given to the newer social sciences and to methodology in the traditional subjects.

These aggregated profiles, however, disguise considerable differences in style type, and it is with these differences that we continue our exploration of the curriculum in social learning in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

STYLE TYPE AND SOCIAL LEARNING

In this chapter we move on to the second major aim of the study, the relationship between curriculum style and the kind of social education that students receive. In our exploration of this relationship we will be using the same data as were used in the previous chapter to study the curriculum in social learning, reanalysing those data to bring out style type differences. Once again we will be looking at teacher and student perceptions of the ideal, the planned, and the operative curriculum in social learning, this time with the data aggregated by style type.

Curriculum Style and the Ideal Curriculum

There are really very few differences between the three basic style types in their perceptions of the ideal curriculum in social learning, as evidenced by the generally high correlation coefficients and the low to moderate distance measures. Nevertheless patterns of difference are beginning to emerge which we will see become more marked as we move on to our discussion of the planned and the operative curriculum.

These patterns are most evident in the teacher perspectives (Figure 5.1). Despite reasonably high correlations ranging between 0.68 and 0.87, and moderate distance measures ranging from 0.92 to 1.32, clear distinctions are observable between the style profiles both in relative emphasis and in level of emphasis. Teachers in Type I schools place more emphasis in their ideal curriculum on factual knowledge (items 1a, 1b, 1c), and on conceptual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 2a) and less emphasis on most other items than do teachers in Type II and Type III schools. Teachers in Type II schools place more emphasis on 'relevant' conceptual knowledge (item 2c) and inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3 and 4), and less emphasis on knowledge in the traditional subjects and the newer social sciences (items 1a, 2a, 2b) in their ideal curriculum than do teachers in Type I and Type III schools. Teachers in Type III schools share an emphasis on personal development and social skills (items 6, 7) with teachers in Type II schools, but place more emphasis on social values (items 8, 10) than do their colleagues in Type I and Type II schools. These patterns are consistent with our definitive hypothesis that a Type I style takes as its focus the content of the learning; a Type II style takes as its focus the

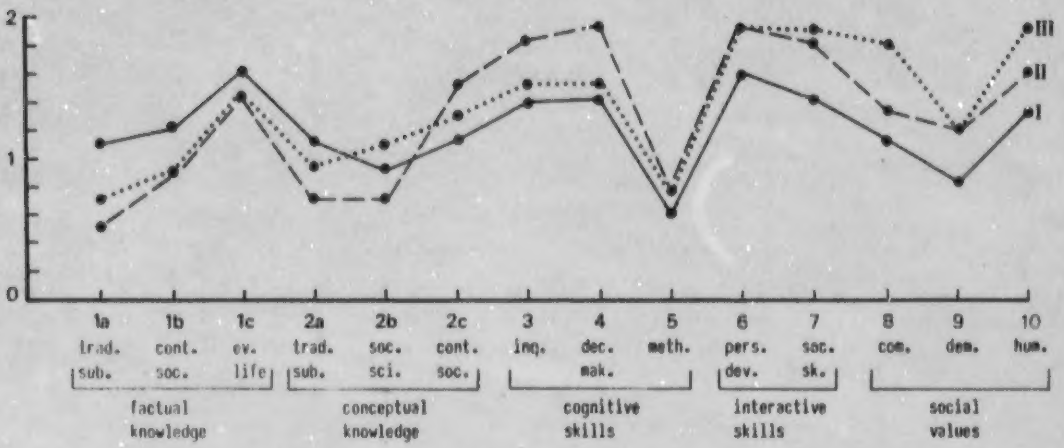

Figure 5.1 Curriculum Style and the Ideal Curriculum: A Teacher Perspective

Profile Similarity:

	I	II	III	
I		0.74	0.68	r
II	*1.28*		0.87	
III	*1.32*	*0.92*		
	D			

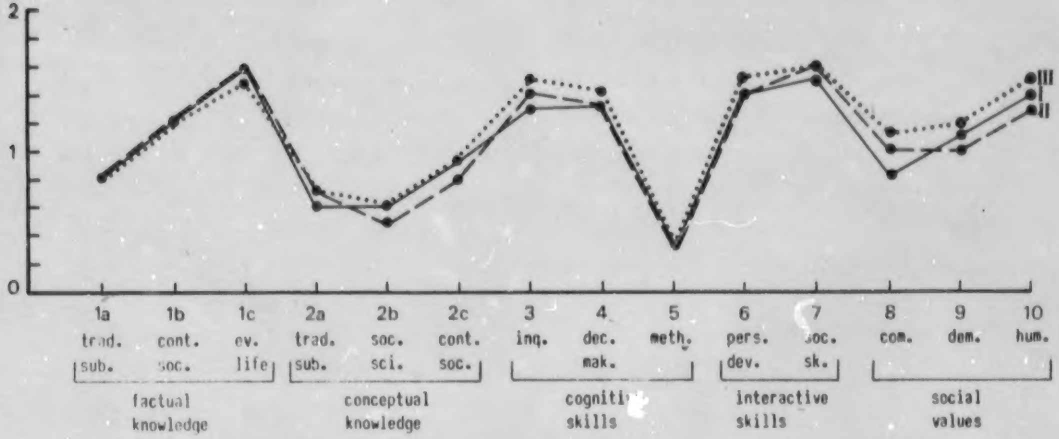

Figure 5.2 Curriculum Style and the Ideal Curriculum: A Student Perspective

Profile Similarity:

	I	II	III	
I		0.98	0.98	r
II	*0.26*		0.98	
III	*0.47*	*0.43*		
	D			

process of learning; and a Type III style takes as its focus the context in which the learning takes place.

While differences do occur on individual items, overall patterns of variance (Appendix II, Table A2.1) are similar to those discussed for the total sample, with teachers in Type III schools showing rather more homogeneity of viewpoint than their colleagues in Type I and Type II schools. Between school variances are generally smaller within style types than they are in the total sample, suggesting that even in their perceptions of the ideal curriculum there is more similarity of viewpoint between schools of the same style type than between schools of different style types, with Type I schools showing a little more homogeneity of viewpoint than Type II or Type III schools.

Student perceptions of the ideal curriculum in social learning (Figure 5.2) show very few differences between style types, as reflected in the very high profile correlations ($r = 0.98$ in each case) and low distance measures ($D = 0.26$, $D = 0.47$, and $D = 0.43$ respectively). Indeed, such differences as are shown would be too slight to warrant comment were it not for the hint they give of patterns which will emerge more strongly in our discussion of the operative curriculum. Of some interest in this connection is the tendency of students in Type III schools to place a somewhat higher value on the non-knowledge components of social education than their fellows in Type I and Type II schools, without any corresponding devaluing of the knowledge component. As we might expect from the very low between school variance in the total sample, variance patterns within style types (Appendix II, Table A2.2) are very similar to those already discussed for the total sample, with Type II schools showing a little more homogeneity of viewpoint than Type I or Type III schools. An interesting anomaly is the relatively high between school variance (0.12) for Type III schools on item 1a, factual knowledge in the traditional subjects.

Perspectives on the Ideal Curriculum

Figures 5.3, 5.4, and 5.5 provide comparisons between teacher and student perspectives on the ideal curriculum in social learning for each of the three style types in turn. Type I schools (Figure 5.3) produce a reasonably close relationship between the views of teachers and students, both in the relative emphasis given to the various items of social learning ($r = 0.84$) and in level of emphasis ($D = 0.99$). Students tend to place slightly more

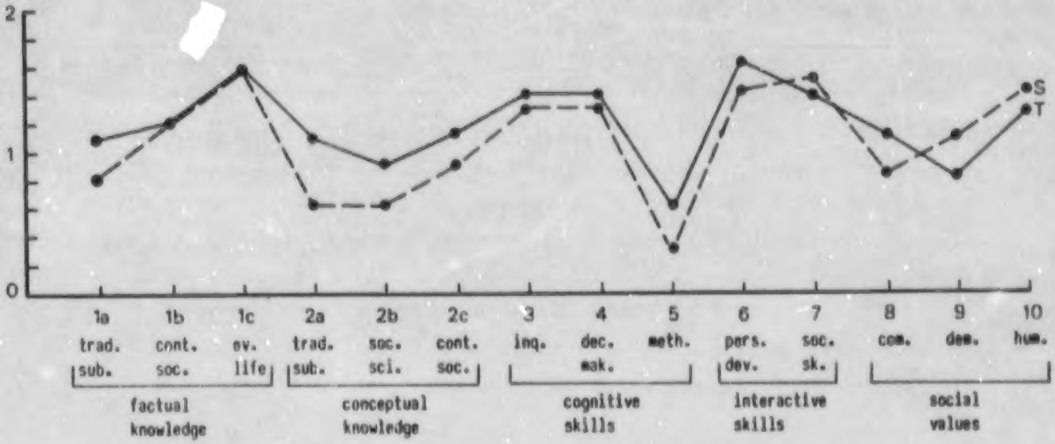

Figure 5.3 Perspectives on the Ideal Curriculum: Type I Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.84
D = 0.99

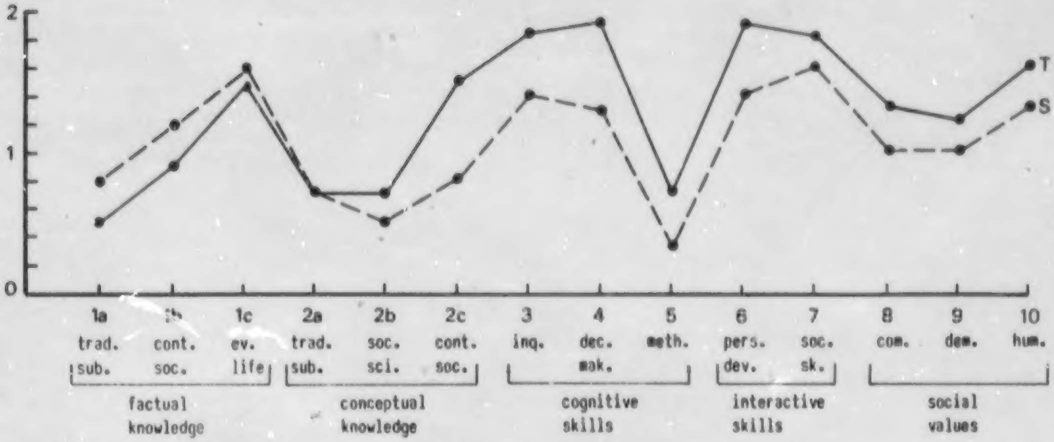

Figure 5.4 Perspectives on the Ideal Curriculum: Type II Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.81
D = 1.42

emphasis than do teachers on the development of social skills and values (items 7, 9, 10) and slightly less emphasis on most other items, with the greatest discrepancy occurring on conceptual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 2a).

Type II schools (Figure 5.4) show a similarly close relationship between the views of teachers and students on the relative emphasis given to the various items of social learning in their ideal curriculum (r = 0.81), but somewhat less agreement on level of emphasis (D = 1.42). Students place slightly more emphasis on factual knowledge (items 1a, 1b, 1c) than do their teachers, and somewhat less emphasis on most of the other items, with the greatest discrepancies occurring on 'relevant' conceptual knowledge (item 2c), inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4) and personal development (item 6).

Teachers and students in Type III schools (Figure 5.5) again show reasonable agreement on the relative emphasis accorded the various items of social learning (r = 0.78), and moderate agreement on level of emphasis (D = 1.30). Again students give slightly more emphasis to factual knowledge (items 1a, 1b) and slightly less emphasis to most other items, with the greatest discrepancies occurring on conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b) and developing a sense of community (item 8).

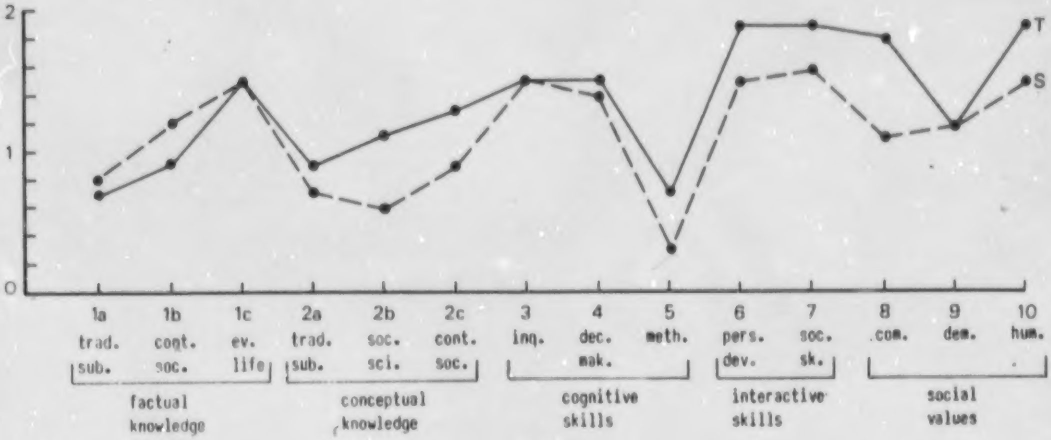

Figure 5.5 Perspectives on the Ideal Curriculum: Type III Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.78
D = 1.30

The closest relationship, both in relative emphasis and in level of emphasis, occurs in Type I schools, at least insofar as the schools in our sample are concerned.

Curriculum Style and the Planned Curriculum

The style type differences observed in the ideal curriculum become more obvious in the planned curriculum, where once again we are dealing with teacher perceptions only (Figure 5.6) since students were considered unlikely to have an adequate awareness of the planned curriculum in most schools. These greater differences are mainly attributable to changes in the profile of Type I schools, particularly in level of emphasis, rather than to any marked changes in Type II or Type III profiles. This is reflected in the moderate to low correlation coefficients (r = 0.49, r = 0.04) and the large distance measures (D = 2.15, D = 2.25) between Type I schools and Type II and III schools respectively. Type II schools and Type III schools, on the other hand, show a reasonably close relationship in their planned curriculum,

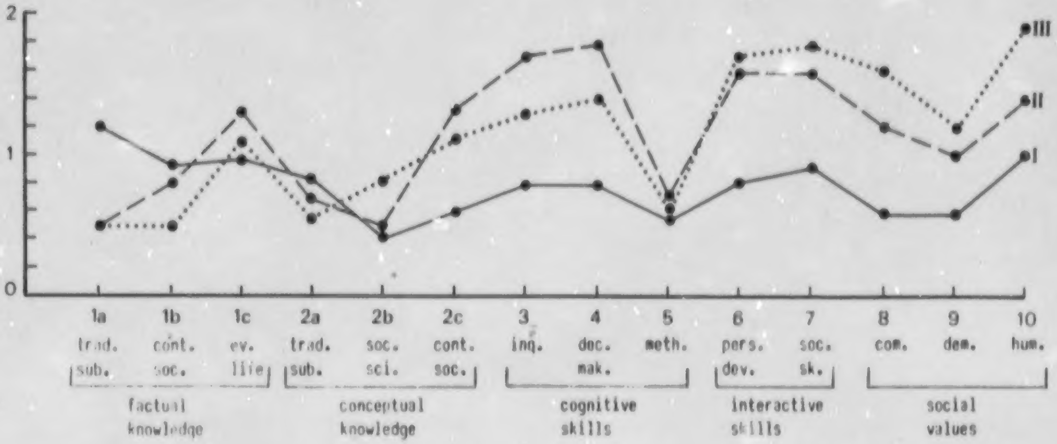

Figure 5.6 Curriculum Style and the Planned Curriculum

Profile Similarity:

	I	II	III	
I		0.49	0.04	r
II	*2.15*		0.82	
III	*2.25*	*1.05*		
	D			

as in their ideal curriculum, both in relative emphasis (r = 0.82) and in level of emphasis (D = 1.05).

Type I schools place a considerably higher emphasis in their planned curriculum on factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a) and a considerably lower emphasis on most of the other items than do either of the other style types. Factual knowledge (items 1a, 1b, 1c), social skills (item 7), and humanitarian values (item 10) are the most emphasized items, while conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b) and methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5) are the least emphasized. Most items, however, receive a mean rating in the planned curriculum of less than 1.00.

The planned curriculum of Type II schools is distinguished from that of the other two style types by its greater emphasis on 'relevant' knowledge (items 1c, 2c) and inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4), although it is also distinguished from Type I schools in its greater emphasis on personal development (item 6), social skills (item 7) and social values (items 8, 9, 10), and its lesser emphasis on factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a). It gives least emphasis in its planned curriculum to discipline-oriented knowledge (items 1a, 2a, 2b) and methodology (item 5), although it does rate the latter item slightly higher than do either of the other two styles, and most emphasis to inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3,4).

The planned curriculum of Type III schools is very similar in emphasis to that of Type II schools, but is distinguished from it by a somewhat greater emphasis on social skills (item 7), social values (items 8, 9, 10), and conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b), and somewhat less emphasis on inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4). It differs markedly on most items from a Type I style, both in relative emphasis (r = 0.04) and in level of emphasis (D = 2.25). It gives greatest emphasis to personal development (item 6), social skills (item 7) and humanitarian values (item 10), and least emphasis to knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a, 5) and factual knowledge related to contemporary Australian society (item 1b).

These patterns are consistent with the conceptualization and definition of the basic style types as outlined in Chapter 2 and, despite similarities between Type II and Type III profiles, confirm the existence of distinctive style types, at least insofar as the perceptions of teachers are concerned.

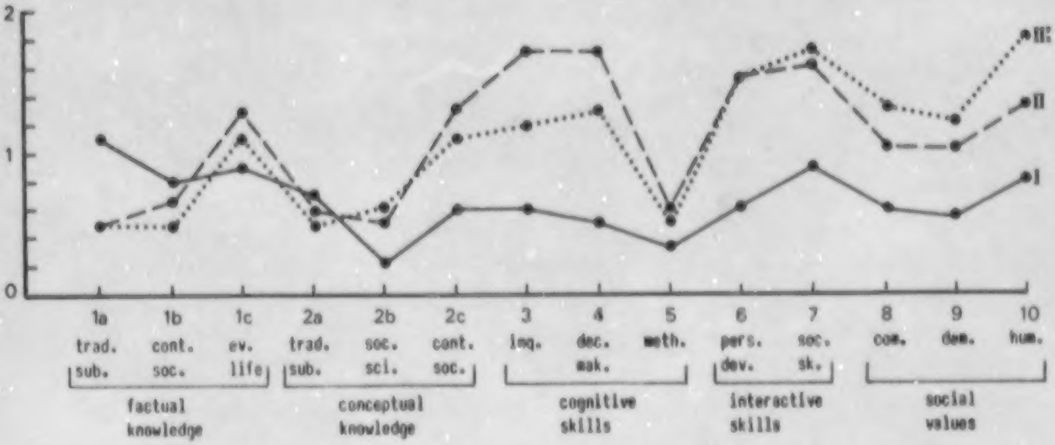

Figure 5.7 Curriculum Style and the Operative Curriculum: A Teacher Perspective

Profile Similarity:

	I	II	III	
I		0.11	0.16	r
II	*2.35*		0.79	
III	*2.30*	*0.99*		
	D			

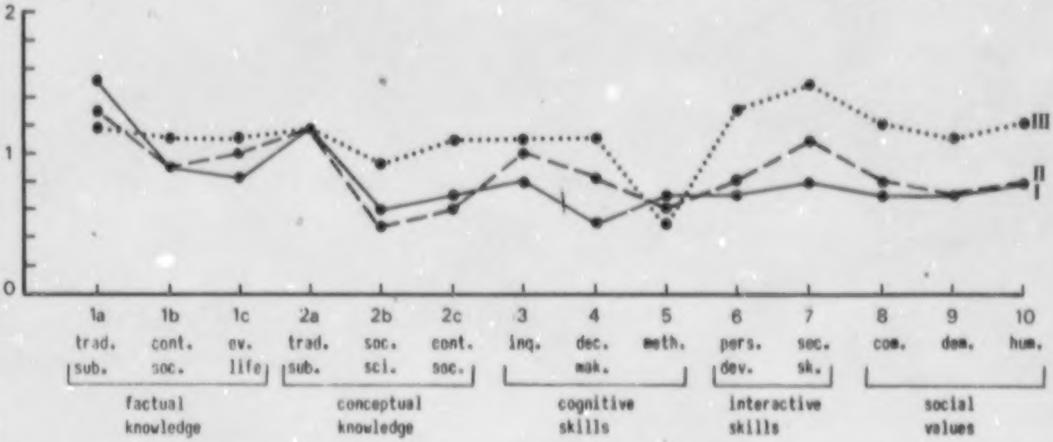

Figure 5.8 Curriculum Style and the Operative Curriculum: A Student Perspective

Profile Similarity:

	I	II	III	
I		0.82	0.23	r
II	*0.56*		0.54	
III	*1.58*	*1.25*		
	D			

Variance patterns (Table A2.3) also tend to give some support to style type definitions, with factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a) and humanitarian values (item 10) recording the lowest item variances for Type I teachers; inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4) for Type II teachers; and social skills and humanitarian values (items 7, 10) for Type III teachers. Item variances tend to be somewhat lower for style types than for the total sample, especially between school variances, with the lowest between school variances occurring among Type I schools.

Curriculum Style and the Operative Curriculum

As we might expect, style type differences are most marked in the operative curriculum, and in a sense it is these differences that are the most important, since they provide us with our best evidence of the relationship between curriculum style and the kind of social education that students actually receive. Differences between style types are most marked in the perceptions of teachers (Figure 5.7), and not surprisingly, given the high correlation noted in Chapter 4 between teacher perceptions of the planned and the operative curriculum (r = 0.99), the patterns revealed in the style type profiles for teachers are almost identical to those displayed in the planned curriculum. Again we find marked differences between Type I schools, on the one hand, and Type II and III schools on the other, both in relative emphasis (r = 0.11 and r = 0.16 respectively) and in level of emphasis (D = 2.35, D = 2.30). Of interest here is the considerably greater gap between Type I schools and Type II schools than was evident in the planned curriculum. The reasonably close relationship between Type II and Type III styles observed already in the ideal and the planned curriculum persists in the operative curriculum, at least so far as the perceptions of teachers are concerned, as reflected in the relatively high correlation coefficient (r = 0.79) and the moderate distance measure (D = 0.99).

As with the planned curriculum, Type I schools place considerably more emphasis in their operative curriculum on factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a), and considerably less emphasis on most of the other items, than do Type II or Type III schools. Factual knowledge (items 1a, 1b, 1c), social skills (item 7), and humanitarian values (item 10) continue to be the items most emphasized, while conceptual knowledge in the newer social sciences (item 2b) and methodology in the traditional subjects (item 5) continue to be the least emphasized items. It is important to note, however, that only one item receives a mean rating greater than 1.00.

The distinguishing feature of Type II schools is rather more definitely centred in the operative curriculum on the greater emphasis given to inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4), although they are also distinguished from Type I schools by their greater emphasis on relevant knowledge (item 1c, 2c), personal development (item 6), social skills (item 7), and social values (items 8, 9, 10), and the lesser importance given to factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a). Discipline-oriented knowledge (1a, 2a, 2b) and methodology (item 5) are given least emphasis in the operative curriculum in social learning in Type II schools, although methodology receives more emphasis than it does in Type I schools. Inquiry, decision-making, and social skills (items 3, 4, 7) and personal development (item 6) are the items given the greatest emphasis.

The operative curriculum of Type III schools is similar to that of Type II schools, but is distinguished from it by a greater emphasis on social values (items 8, 9, 10) and less emphasis on inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4). It gives greatest emphasis to personal development (item 6), social skills (item 7) and humanitarian values (item 10), and least emphasis to knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a, 5) and factual knowledge related to contemporary Australian society (item 1b). The somewhat greater emphasis on the newer social sciences (item 2b) noted in the planned curriculum does not appear to have carried through to the operative curriculum, at least as perceived by teachers, but they do receive greater emphasis than in Type I schools.

The student perspectives on the operative curriculum (Figure 5.8) present a rather different picture. The distinction between style types that was most marked for teachers, that between Type I schools and Type II schools, is, from the student viewpoint, the least marked ($r = 0.82$, $D = 0.56$); whereas the close relationship between Type II and Type III styles observed in the teacher profiles is no longer apparent from the student perspective ($r = 0.54$, $D = 1.25$). As we shall see shortly, this is largely due to a marked conflict between teachers and students in Type II schools in their perceptions of the operative curriculum. The distinction between Type I and Type III schools as perceived by students is similar in relative emphasis ($r = 0.23$) to that perceived by teachers, though somewhat less in level of emphasis ($D = 1.58$).

When we look at the patterns of difference, however, we find that there is rather more agreement than these figures might at first indicate. As with the teacher profiles, a greater emphasis on factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a), coupled with somewhat less emphasis on most of the other items, continues to be the distinguishing feature of a Type I style. So, too, a Type II style is distinguished from a Type I style by somewhat less emphasis on factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a), and somewhat greater emphasis on 'relevant' factual knowledge (item 1c), inquiry and decision-making skills (item 3, 4), and social skills (item 7); and while these differences are only a pale reflection of those perceived by teachers, they do operate in a similar direction, though not sufficiently to match the emphasis given by students in Type III schools. It is interesting to note here that, with the exception of knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a, 5) students in Type III schools see their operative curriculum as attaching more importance to all items of social learning than do their counterparts in Type I and Type II schools. As with their teachers, they see a major focus on personal development (item 6) and the development of social skills (item 7).

The student profiles, then, reveal similar, if muted, patterns of emphasis to those revealed in the teacher profiles, and these patterns continue to lend support to the conceptualization and definition of the basic style types as outlined in Chapter 2.

While variances between teachers (Table A2.4) are generally smaller within style types than they are for the sample as a whole, student within style variances (Table A2.5) are of similar magnitude to those recorded for the total sample. This may account for the less clear cut distinctions between style type profiles observed among students. Between school variances, however, are less marked within style types for both students and teachers than they are in the total sample. The lowest between school variances for both students and teachers occur among Type I schools, the highest among Type III schools, which may suggest a greater degree of individuality among Type III schools. Of particular interest here are the high between school variances on knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a) for students in Type III schools, and the high between school variances on relevant knowledge (items 1c, 2c) for teachers in Type III schools. In both cases the variances are higher than those on any item for the other two style types, and suggest considerable variation among Type III schools on the importance attached to content.

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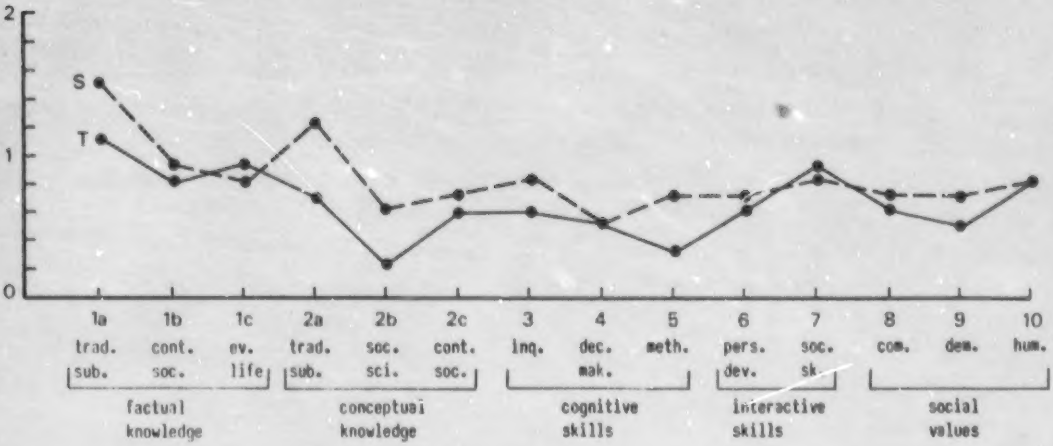

Figure 5.9 Perspectives on the Operative Curriculum: Type I Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.67
D = 0.92

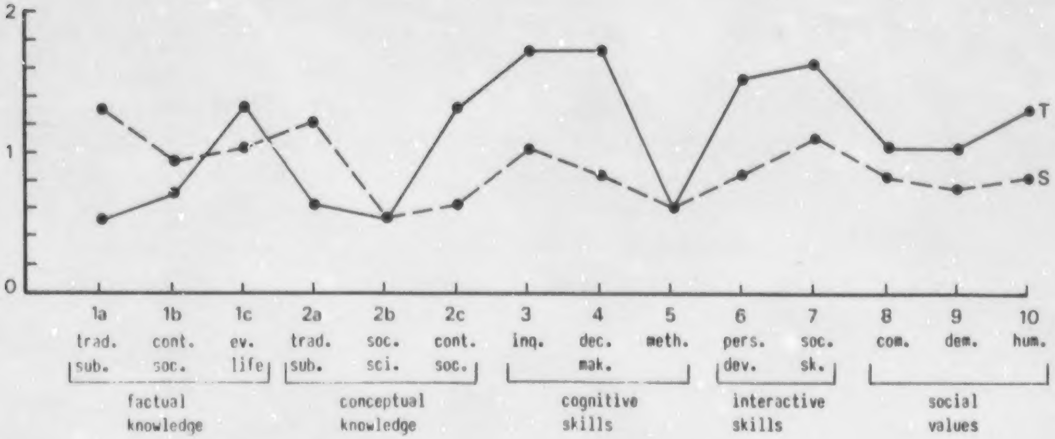

Figure 5.10 Perspectives on the Operative Curriculum: Type II Schools

Profile Similarity: r = -0.04
D = 2.01

Perspectives on the Operative Curriculum

Figures 5.9, 5.10, and 5.11 compare teacher and student perceptions of the operative curriculum for each of the three style types separately. There is a reasonable amount of agreement (r = 0.67, D = 0.92) between teachers and students in Type I schools in their perceptions of the school's operative curriculum in social learning (Figure 5.9). Both see factual knowledge in the traditional subjects (item 1a) as providing the major focus for the program in social learning, but students see conceptual knowledge (items 2a, 2b) and methodology (item 5) as being more strongly emphasized than do teachers. These three items constitute the main source of disagreement, although, in contrast to the other two style types, students see somewhat more emphasis being placed on most items than do teachers. Teachers see the major emphases of the operative curriculum as being on factual knowledge (items 1a, 1b, 1c) and the development of social skills (item 7), while students see it as quite clearly focused on knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a). Both groups, however, rate most items below the mean rating of 1.00.

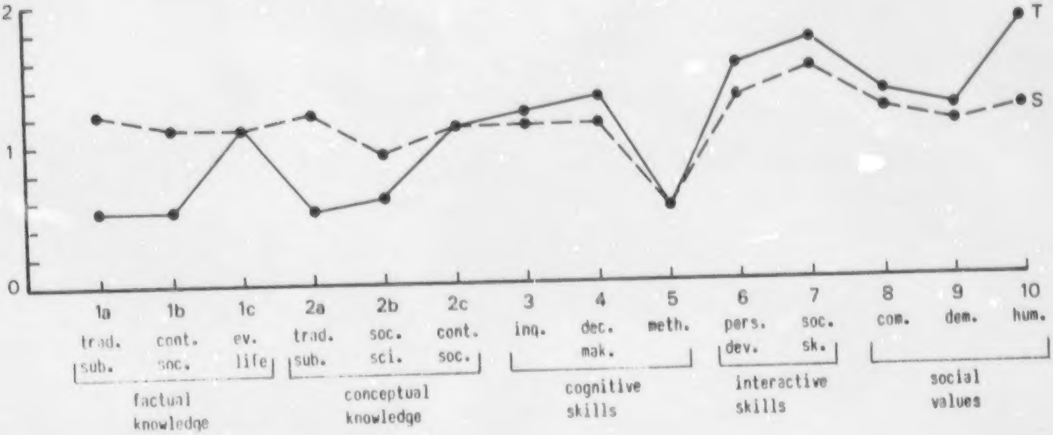

Figure 5.11 Perspectives on the Operative Curriculum: Type III Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.59
D = 1.41

Type III students (Figure 5.11) are slightly less in agreement with their teachers than Type I students are, both on relative emphasis (r = 0.59) and on level of emphasis (D = 1.41), but differences are mainly attributable to the considerably higher emphasis students perceive as being given to knowledge other than relevant knowledge (items 1a, 1b, 2a, 2b) and the considerably higher emphasis teachers perceive as being given to the development of humanitarian values (item 10). Both are in agreement, however, on the major emphasis given to personal development (item 6) and the development of social skills (item 7).

When we come to Type II schools (Figure 5.10), however, we find a marked disagreement between the perceptions of teachers and those of students, both on the relative emphasis placed on the various items (r = -0.04) and on the level of emphasis (D = 2.01). While teachers see the major emphasis of the operative curriculum in social learning as being on skills (items 3, 4, 7) and personal development (item 6), students see it as quite clearly focused on knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a). While minor peaks do occur in the student profile on inquiry skills (item 3) and social skills (item 7), there is a marked difference in level of emphasis and these, together with decision-making skills (item 4) are among the items on which the greatest discrepancies occur.

It is difficult to account for this marked disparity of viewpoints in Type II schools, especially given the reasonable concurrence between teacher and student views in the other two style types. There is some evidence in the interview and documentary data to suggest that teachers find skills difficult to teach, and that they do experience some difficulty in distinguishing skills from content. There is also evidence that teachers generally find it difficult to assess skill development, and that assessment procedures tend to overemphasize content. It would not be surprising if students tended to learn what was tested rather than what was taught; and to perceive the emphases given to the various elements of social learning in the school's assessment procedures as being the emphases of the curriculum. It is certainly possible, too, for students to be absorbing much more in the skills area than they are aware of; just as it is possible for teachers to be emphasizing content far more than they are aware of, especially in their assessment procedures. Clearly all of these factors would have more effect on perceptions of the curriculum in schools where the teachers see themselves as emphasizing skills, as they do in Type II schools, than in schools where the teachers see themselves as emphasizing content or context; and yet none of them, either singly or in total, really provides an adequate explanation of the phenomenon observed. We are left in the last analysis with an intriguing question which cannot be adequately explained by the available data.

Curriculum Style and Social Learning

Throughout this chapter we have been progressivly accumulating evidence on the relationship between curriculum style and the curriculum in social learning. On the basis of this evidence we are in a position to make a number of general observations, at least insofar as our twenty case study schools are concerned, on the relationship between curriculum style and the kind of social education that students receive.

The evidence of the case study schools suggests that there is reasonable agreement between teachers and students and between styles on the ideal curriculum in social learning. Differences between style types become more evident in the planned curriculum. Teachers in Type I schools tend to be distinguished by their greater emphasis on knowledge in the traditional subjects; teachers in Type II schools by their greater emphasis on inquiry and decision-making skills; and teachers in Type III schools by their greater emphasis on social values.

Differences between style types are more marked in the operative curriculum in social learning than in the planned curriculum, but generally display similar patterns. These differences are more clearly defined in the perceptions of teachers than in the perceptions of students, but again the patterns of difference are similar. Teachers and students are in reasonable agreement that the major emphasis of the operative curriculum in Type I schools is on knowledge, especially factual knowledge in the traditional subjects, while the major emphasis in Type III schools is on personal development, social skills, and social values; although students in Type III schools perceive a greater emphasis on knowledge than their teachers do. Teachers and students in Type II schools, however, are in disagreement about where the major emphasis of the operative curriculum in social learning lies, teachers seeing it as being on inquiry and decision-making skills, students on knowledge in the traditional subjects. Students in Type II schools do however perceive a greater emphasis in the operative curriculum on inquiry and decision-making skills than do their peers in Type I schools. Students in Type III schools perceive their schools as placing more emphasis on social education in general than do their peers in Type I and Type II schools.

Table 5.1 Summary of Profile Similarity Data

		r =			D =	
	I/II	I/III	II/III	I/II	I/III	II/III
Teachers Ideal	0.74	0.68	0.87	1.28	1.32	0.92
Students Ideal	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.26	0.47	0.43
Teachers Planned	0.49	0.04	0.82	2.15	2.25	1.05
Teachers Operative	0.11	0.16	0.79	2.35	2.30	0.99
Students Operative	0.82	0.23	0.54	0.56	1.58	1.25

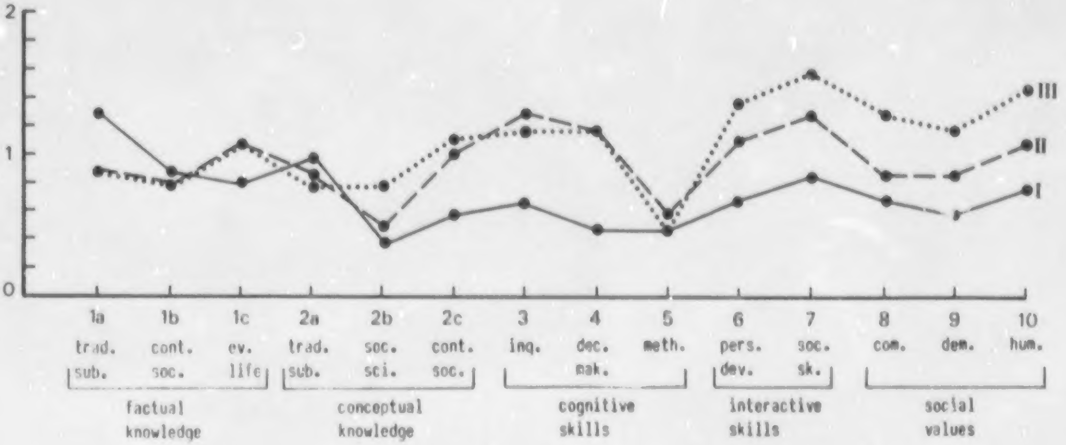

Figure 5.12 Curriculum Style and Social Learning: A Composite Perspective

Profile Similarity:

	I	II	III	
I		0.21	0.03	r
II	*1.39*		0.76	
III	*1.87*	*0.85*		
	D			

While the evidence for style type differences is not without its problems and contradictions, fairly clear patterns of difference do emerge, particularly in the operative curriculum, and these patterns are consistent with the style types as conceptualized and defined in Chapter 2, namely: a Type I, or expository, style is one whose focus or principal curriculum orientation is on *content*; a Type II, or functional, style is one whose focus or principal curriculum orientation is on *process*; and a Type III, or situational, style is one whose focus or principal curriculum orientation is on *context*.

Table 5.1 summarizes the data on profile similarity between style types accumulated to date. It will be noted that the distinctions between style types are most clearly delineated in the data on the operative curriculum. The distinction between a Type I style and the other two style types is most clearly evident in the teacher profiles; the distinction between a Type II and a Type III style is most clearly evident in the student profiles. The distinction which is consistently the clearest from both teacher and student viewpoints is that between a Type I and a Type III style.

Figure 5.12 brings together the views of teachers and those of students on the operative curriculum in social learning, allowing equal weight to each perspective, to provide a somewhat artificial composite perspective that we might think of as representing a school view of the operative curriculum in social learning. The resulting profiles are sufficiently differentiated to suggest that the hypothesized style types do result in distinctively different approaches to the curriculum in social learning. The most clearly defined distinction in this composite perspective is still that between Type I and Type III styles ($r = 0.03$, $D = 1.87$), while that between Type II and Type III styles continues to be the least marked ($r = 0.76$, $D = 0.85$). The distinction between Type I and Type II styles, while less marked than in the teacher profiles, is still quite definite ($r = 0.21$, $D = 1.39$).

A Type I style is most readily distinguished from the other two style types by its greater perceived emphasis on knowledge in the traditional subjects, and a lower perceived emphasis on skills, personal development, and social values. A Type II style is most readily distinguishable from a Type I style by its greater perceived emphasis on inquiry and decision-making skills. A Type III style is most readily distinguished from the other two style types by its greater perceived emphasis on personal development, social skills, and social values. Moreover, the peaking of a Type I style on knowledge in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a), of a Type II style on inquiry, decision-making, and social skills (items 3, 4, 7), and of a Type III style on personal development, social skills, and humanitarian values (items 6, 7, 10) is consistent with the postulated focus of the three style types on content, process, and context respectively.

CHAPTER 6

ASPECTS OF CURRICULUM STYLE

In this chapter we will be bringing together data peripheral to the main aims of the study but relevant to our consideration of curriculum style. They concern aspects of curriculum style which have not been investigated systematically, but about which data have been accumulated incidentally during the course of the study. They should therefore be regarded as indicative rather than conclusive, as suggesting lines of possible further investigation rather than as presenting established findings. They are of interest because of the amplification they give to the concept of curriculum style, and because of the empirical light they shed on some of the more speculative aspects of the development of the concept in Chapter 2.

Some Characteristics of Curriculum Style

In developing the concept of curriculum style, it was postulated that a close relationship would exist between curriculum style as defined by its focus and certain other aspects of the teaching-learning situation, such as teaching methods, learning outcomes, values, and structure. The evidence of the study, while not necessarily negating this hypothesis, provides little support for it. Rather it suggests that the relationship between curriculum style and other aspects of the teaching-learning situation is much more flexible and individual than the sterotyped positions of the curriculum debate would lead us to suppose.

During the initial visit to case study schools a questionnaire was left with a number of teachers selected to cover the full range of the school's programs in social education in Years 7-10. The questionnaire was in two parts. The second part, Part B, provided the data on teacher perception of the curriculum in social learning discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. The first part, Part A, was designed principally as a check on the adequacy of the sample of schools selected, but in pursuit of this aim broadly surveyed a number of characteristics of the teaching-learning situation in the schools selected. It thus indirectly provides a source of data on the relationship between these characteristics and curriculum style. The sample consists of 91 teachers, comprising three to six teachers from each school, depending on the size of the school and the number of different programs operating. The questionnaire itself is reproduced in Appendix I.

The key item in Part A of the questionnaire so far as our present investigation is concerned was item 3, which asked respondents which of the three definitive focuses - content, process, or context - they saw as providing the main focus for their own program(s) in social learning. Unfortunately there was some discrepancy between responses to this item and program focus as indicated by style type classifications based on all the data: questionnaire responses, interview data, content analysis of program documents, and profile analysis of program components. It can be argued that program classifications based on all the available data are likely to provide a more reliable indicator of style type than teacher responses to a single questionnaire item; but it can also be argued that since all the other items are based on teacher perceptions, the most appropriate comparison is with teacher perceptions of style type as indicated by perceived focus. In view of this dilemma and the relatively large discrepancy between program classification and teacher perception of major focus, it was decided to analyse the questionnaire data according to both sets of criteria. Interestingly enough there is surprisingly little difference in the patterns of relationship emerging from the two analyses and, while observable differences in response pattern certainly do occur, in no case are these differences statistically significant at the five per cent level. In view of the observed differences, however, it seemed advisable to report results in general terms rather than precise percentages, except in the case of total sample responses.

Part A of the teacher questionnaire contained ten items, one of which (item 3) was the key item already referred to concerned with teachers' perceptions of the main focus of their program(s) in social learning. Of the nine remaining items, three were designed as broad exploratory items of program-related characteristics that might or might not have some relationship to curriculum style. The other six items concerned aspects of the teaching/learning situation, such as teaching style, values, and course structure, which were expected to be closely related to curriculum style as defined by its focus. We will begin our discussion of the characteristics of curriculum style with a consideration of the three exploratory items, before moving on to a consideration of the items dealing with expected relationships.

Source of authority for program

The first item in Part A of the teacher questionnaire sought information on teacher perception of the main source of authority for the program they were teaching: sources external to the school (e.g. Departmental syllabuses or guidelines, examining boards, textbooks or sets of materials), sources within the school other than the teacher (e.g. principal, head of department), or sources within the school involving the teacher, either individually or in collaboration with other members of the teaching staff. Sixty-eight per cent of respondents saw the teacher as being the main source of authority for the program being taught, either individually or in collaboration with other members of staff, and a further twelve per cent saw the main source of authority for the program resting with some other internal authority such as the principal or head of department. A surprisingly small proportion of respondents (7%) saw a textbook or set of materials as providing the main source of authority for the program they were teaching. There is some conflict here between the questionnaire responses and the interview and documentary evidence, which suggests that textbooks in particular are extremely important in determining what is taught in many social education programs; although it is possible that many teachers interpreted the decision to choose a particular textbook or set of materials as an exercise of individual or collaborative authority. Eleven per cent of respondents saw their programs as being principally determined by some outside agency, such as an Education Department or examining board.

While style type differences on source of authority for programs do occur, the majority of respondents in each style type see the teacher, either individually or in collaboration with others, as the main source of authority for their program(s) in social learning. Thus, while Type I programs are more frequently seen as emanating from sources of authority external to the school, Type II programs are more frequently seen as emanating from the individual teacher, and Type III programs are more frequently seen as emanating from the teaching staff in collaboration, these represent minority perceptions in each case and cannot therefore be considered as reliable indicators of style type.

Sympathy with program

The overwhelming majority (93%) of respondents see themselves as fundamentally in sympathy with the programs they are teaching (item 2), and there are no significant differences between style types on this criterion. There is some conflict between these data, however, and the profile analyses of goal satisfaction discussed in Chapter 10 (*q.v.*).

Assessment procedures

Contrary to a commonly expressed view, almost all respondents (96%) carry out some form of assessment in conjunction with their programs in social education, and the majority of these adopt conventional procedures. While 45 per cent of respondents make use of informal methods in their assessment, these are almost always used in conjunction with formal methods. The most frequently used methods of assessment are projects or assignments (83%), cumulative assessment of class work (69%), and regular tests (60%), generally in combination. Formal examinations are used by 19 per cent of respondents, almost always in combination with other methods. A disappointing feature of these data is the relatively small proportion of respondents who include diagnostic assessment (9%) or course evaluation (25%) as part of their assessment procedures, particularly so since the schools selected in the study were all seen as being good examples of their style type.

While style type differences in assessment procedures do occur, with teachers of Type I programs making more use of regular tests than their colleagues in the other two style types and teachers of Type III programs making more use of informal methods, cumulative assessment of class work, and course evaluation, the three most frequently used methods - projects or assignments, the cumulative assessment of class work, and regular tests - are commonly used by all three style types, suggesting that assessment procedures are unlikely to provide useful indicators of style type.

Focus of Program

Table 6.1 present phi coefficients for the key item (item 3) and for the six other items directly concerned with the postulated characteristics of style type. The phi coefficients can be considered as measures of the correlation between the actual responses of teachers to the items on the questionnaire and the responses that might have been expected if the postulated relationship with curriculum style in fact existed. Phi coefficients are presented for each of the two style type classifications: allocation to style type on the basis of program classification based on all the available data, and allocation to style type on the basis of the respondent's own perception of the main focus of his/her program(s) in social learning. In interpreting the phi coefficients it should be noted that the nature of the teacher sample

Table 6.1 Teacher Questionnaire Part A: Phi Coefficients for Items Related to Style Characteristics (N = 91)

Item	Style Type					
	Program Classification			Teacher Perception		
	I ϕ =	II ϕ =	III ϕ =	I ϕ =	II ϕ =	III ϕ =
3 KEY ITEM (Focus)	0.43***	0.28*	0.41***	1.00	1.00	1.00
4 Teaching methods	0.26*	0.06	0.32**	0.06	0.02	0.32**
5 Teaching mode	0.25*	0.29*	0.07	0.28*	0.26*	0.11
6 Classroom climate	0.07	0.06		0.08	0.08	
7 Values	0.06	0.00	0.33**	0.04	0.20	0.08
8 Structure	0.23*	0.08	0.29*	0.24*	0.11	0.29*
10 Educational goals	0.14	0.30**	0.50***	0.08	0.07	0.28*

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$
*** $p < 0.001$

Note: Probabilities have been adjusted for sample design effects. See Appendix III.

does not permit precise significance testing. Consequently, in estimating significance levels for the phi coefficients in Table 6.1, adjustments have been made to compensate for sample design effects. The procedures used in making these adjustments are explained in Appendix III.

It will be recalled that the key item (item 3) asked respondents which of the three definitive focuses - content, process, or context - they saw as providing the focus for their own program(s) in social learning. Since it was responses to this item which provided the basis for allocation to style type by teacher perception, the phi coefficients are automatically 1.00 on that classification. While moderately large phi coefficients, all statistically significant, are obtained on the basis of program classification, they are not so large as we might expect, and suggest that teacher perception of focus, while discriminating positively between style types, could not provide on its own a satisfactory method of classifying school programs. It should be noted however that in terms of the purpose of the item for the present study - that of providing some indication of the potential distribution of style types among the schools selected for case study - it proved to be reasonably accurate.

Teaching style

The remaining six items in Part A of the teacher questionnaire are directly related to postulated characteristics of curriculum style based on the analysis of positions in the curriculum debate. It was postulated, for example, that there would be a close if not definitive relationship between curriculum style and teaching style, and three of the items in the questionnaire - items 4, 5, and 6, dealing with teaching methods, teaching modes, and classroom climate respectively - were directly concerned with this hypothesis. The results are surprising and suggest that, while a positive relationship between curriculum style and teaching style does appear to exist, it is certainly not a definitive one.

Item 4 asked respondents to indicate whether they mainly used traditional methods, innovative methods, or radical or alternative methods in teaching their programs in social learning, it being postulated that teachers of Type I programs would mainly prefer traditional methods, teachers of Type II programs would mainly prefer innovative methods, and teachers of Type III programs would mainly prefer radical or alternative methods. While the phi coefficients suggest that a weak relationship of the type postulated may well exist, particularly in the case of Type III schools, it is certainly not as close a relationship as has tended to be assumed in much of the recent research into teaching styles, for example Bennett (1976), Campbell (1977), and Campbell and Campbell (1978). Moreover, while a significantly greater proportion of teachers of Type III programs do see themselves as using radical or alternative methods, these represent less than a quarter of the teachers of Type III programs, the majority being somewhat uncertainly divided between traditional and innovative methods, depending on which of the two style type classifications we choose to follow. It may come as something of a surprise to those whose acquaintance with schools is mainly through the media that approximately half of the respondents saw themselves as using mainly traditional methods, while only 8 per cent saw themselves as using mainly radical or alternative methods; and this in a sample deliberately designed to ensure a coverage of innovative and alternative schools.

A curious feature of the responses to item 5, which asked respondents to indicate whether they mainly emphasized in their programs the transmission of knowledge, the development of skills and abilities, or the cultivation of awareness, is that one would have expected a close correlation between responses to this item and those to the key item, item 3, and hence very high phi coefficients for style types as allocated according to teacher perception of focus. The two items are conceptually related, and this was emphasized in the wording of the items (see Appendix I). Yet both sets of phi coefficients indicate a very similar pattern of weak relationship with curriculum style, due mainly to the fact that more than half the teachers of Type I programs and almost half the teachers of Type II programs saw the cultivation of awareness as receiving the major emphasis in their programs. This suggests that the phrase is far too imprecise to be of much value in this context, being open to a variety of interpretations, and attractive enough in itself to woo teachers away from more logically related responses; and this in turn suggests that it would be unwise to place very much reliance on the results observed, despite their consistency across the two style type classifications.

Perhaps the most surprising aspect of this exploration of the relationship between curriculum style and teaching style is the apparent lack of relationship between curriculum style and classroom climate. Item 6 asked respondents to indicate whether the usual learning climate in their classroom in social learning could best be described as formal or informal; it being postulated that teachers of Type I programs would be likely to prefer a mainly formal classroom climate and teachers of Type II and Type III programs would be likely to prefer a mainly informal classroom climate. In the event a majority of teachers of all styles preferred an informal climate, with a significantly greater proportion of teachers of Type III programs preferring an informal classroom climate. It would appear however that classroom climate in itself gives no indication of the curriculum style of the program.

Program structure

Item 8 was concerned with the structure of the program, it being postulated that teachers of Type I programs would be likely to prefer a single-disciplinary or multi-disciplinary structure, teachers of Type II programs would be likely to prefer an interdisciplinary or 'integrated' structure, and that teachers of Type III programs would prefer a non-disciplinary or 'emergent' structure. As can be seen from the phi coefficients, while a weak relationship between program structure and curriculum style does appear to exist, it is not so great as the curriculum literature would lead one to anticipate. The majority of respondents (57%) described their program(s) as being single-disciplinary or multi-disciplinary, with 37 per cent describing their programs as interdisciplinary or 'integrated', and 7 per cent as non-disciplinary or 'emergent'. These results had a bearing on the development of the extensions to the typology proposed in Section Three.

Values

Item 7 was concerned with whether teachers were seeking to develop values in their program(s) in social learning and, if so, the type of values they were seeking to develop: traditional, progressive, or radical/counter-cultural. Only 2 per cent of respondents said they were not concerned with developing values although 6 per cent said it was the pupils' own values they were concerned with developing, not with imposing a set of values on them. Fifty per cent of respondents saw themselves as being concerned with developing progressive values, 30 per cent with developing traditional values, and 13 per cent with developing radical or counter-cultural values. As the predominantly low phi coefficients indicate, there is little evidence to suggest a strong relationship between curriculum style and program values, although a significantly greater proportion of teachers of Type III programs as defined by program classification see themselves as seeking to develop radical or counter-cultural values. These represent less than a third of the teachers of Type III programs however, and the difference is only significant for style type as allocated by program classification. It seems probable, however, that semantic difficulties with the meanings of such very general terms may have caused difficulties with this item also, and results should consequently be treated with some caution.

Educational goals

Perhaps more important than the values teachers see themselves as trying to develop in their programs are the educational values implicit in the goals of those programs. Respondents were asked to select from a list of seven broad goals the one that they saw as indicating the main function of the program(s) they taught, or to provide their own goal if none of these was suitable. Two of these goals (to provide a sound basis for academic studies; to introduce young people to their cultural heritage) were postulated as likely goals for Type I programs; two (to develop young people who can think rationally and independently; to equip young people to function effectively in society) were postulated as likely goals for Type II programs; two (to help each student achieve his/her full potential as a human being; to produce aware students who can act as change agents in building a better society and a better world) were postulated as likely goals for Type III programs; and one (to keep young people usefully occupied until they leave school) was included as a refuge for the cynics.

In the event the postulated goals proved to be remarkably effective for teachers of Type II and Type III programs as allocated by program classification. About three quarters of the teachers of Type II and Type III programs selected one or other of the goals postulated for their style type. Unfortunately the goals postulated for a Type I style attracted less than 10 per cent of teachers of Type I programs, almost two thirds of them selecting one or other of the goals postulated for a Type II style. With the wisdom of hindsight, goals related to conceptual understanding and relevant knowledge may well have proved more effective in attracting teachers of Type I programs, and resulted in a better discrimination between teachers of Type I and Type II programs. Nevertheless, what was of necessity a tentative and speculative item appears to have stumbled on a genuine relationship between curriculum style and underlying program goals. Even as it stands the item provides an effective method of discriminating between Type I and II styles on the one hand, and Type III styles on the other, particularly insofar as allocation of style types by program classification is concerned.

In interpreting these data, however, a number of caveats are in order:

1 the nature of the primary sample (i.e. the selection of schools) is such that data should be considered as indicative rather than as definitive;

2 the data are based on questionnaire responses only, and the interview data provide several sobering instances of the discrepancy between questionnaire responses and the more reflective and elaborated responses possible in the interview situation;

3 the data represent teacher perceptions only, which may or may not accord with more objective realities; the discrepancy between responses to item 3 and the eventual classification based on all the data is a case in point;

4 the questionnaire was designed as a broad screening device, and as such it proved quite successful; it may be that a more sensitive instrument designed for the purpose would produce more subtle patterns of relationship between curriculum style and other aspects of the teaching/learning situation.

Some Determinants of Curriculum Style

Woven through the interview data are patterns of evidence related to the determinants of curriculum style: the bureaucratic constraints and the problems of communication evident in Case Study 1, for example. This sort of evidence is hypothesis-forming rather than hypothesis-testing, suggestive rather than definitive. It has not arisen in response to systematic investigation, but rather as the result of the inevitable desire of teachers in discussing their programs in social learning to justify, to account for, to explain why those programs are the way they are. It is not the sort of evidence to which precise probability statements can be attached. Nonetheless, its reappearance in a number of diverse situations and circumstances, and the absence of the contrary case, must serve to give it a measure of credibility. Table 6.2 is an attempt to bring together this scattered evidence to provide a structured overview of some of the factors which teachers see as influencing the nature of the programs they teach.

The interview data contain frequent references to school characteristics as explicative of the nature of the school's programs in social learning. Such factors as the size of the school, its location, the nature of the

Table 6.2 Some Determinants of Curriculum Style

General Categories	Specific Examples
1 SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS	size, location, intake, type, status, aims, philosophy, traditions, etc.
2 SCHOOL ORGANIZATION	departmental structure, timetabling, source of authority, pattern of decision-making, etc.
3 TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS	personality, philosophy, experience, training, competence, confidence, ambition, degree of responsibility, ideology, commitment, etc.
4 STAFFING AND RESOURCES	adequacy, stability, specialization, experience, etc. of staff; textbooks, materials, facilities, time, expertise, guidance, etc.
5 STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS	ability, streaming, motivation, ethnic background, etc.
6 PERCEIVED PARENT AND COMMUNITY EXPECTATIONS	fact and opinion, survey and suspicion, the media image, sensitivity to criticism, etc.
7 CAREER STRUCTURE	salary, promotions, rivalry, competition for students, rewards for innovation, etc.
8 SURVIVAL	in the classroom/in the school/in the system, the threat of change, vested interests, myth and tradition, the dangers of boat-rocking, etc.
9 THE BUREAUCRACY	Departmental policies and syllabuses, examining boards and certification requirements, support structures, devolution of authority, etc.
10 LEADERSHIP	authority, charisma, leadership style, change agents, etc.
11 COMMUNICATION	between teachers, between subject departments, between administration and staff, between school and community, openness to new ideas, access to new ideas, etc.

student intake, its type, status, aims, philosophy, and traditions, are clearly influential in arriving at decisions about curriculum. Size for example, appears to be crucial to the development of a Type III style. All of the Type III schools in the study see it as vital to the realization of their aims that student numbers should be kept to something under 350. At the other end of the scale, the lack of communication between subject departments evident in School A (Case Study 1) is at least in part a product of its size.

Linked to this is the organizational structure of the school: the division into departments, the pattern of decision making, the climate of authority, timetabling, the allocation of classrooms, and so on. It is disturbing, for example, how frequently teachers claim that they are limited in their curriculum development by the *fait accompli* of the timetable: a case of the administrative tail wagging the educational dog.

Perhaps even more important than the characteristics of the school and its organization are the characteristics of the teachers who put the programs into practice. The study affords a number of examples of innovative programs transformed into conventional ones by teachers who lack the commitment, the confidence, or the skills to put them into practice. Many teachers do not feel that they have the competence, or the confidence, to develop their own programs, even where they are dissatisfied with what they are doing and express a desire for change. This in turn reflects on the adequacy of their professional training and the perceived adequacy of the support services provided. The evidence of the study suggests that, with a few notable exceptions, Bennett's (1976) finding that teachers are not given to reading educational theory holds good for Australian teachers also, so that educational philosophies appear to have less influence on curriculum practice than more basic political or religious ideologies, except where charismatic leadership provides a link between theory and practice. Where more general ideologies have an influence on the development of curriculum, it appears to be the quality and extent of the commitment that is crucial to the resultant curriculum style rather than the particular ideological content, as we have noted in our discussion of Type III styles in Chapter 2.

More general issues of staffing and resources also have their influence on the nature of the curriculum, particularly stability of staffing. State schools are particularly susceptible to frequent changes of direction with the transfer of key staff, leading to a certain tentativeness in curriculum style. While changes from year to year may not be dramatic - schools do appear to have a certain elastic quality, a tendency to bounce back into their original shape - they do result in shifts in the balance of program which can entail shifts in curriculum style. The most limited resources in terms of curriculum in schools are time and expertise. Most schools in the study are conscious of a need for curriculum innovation, but find their efforts hampered by the inability to bring staff together often enough and for long enough to sustain the process, and by the absence of the expert guidance they feel they need to make the process effective. Consequently recourse is often made, more by necessity than by choice and often without enthusiasm, to textbooks, course outlines, and Departmental syllabuses and guidelines, to provide the structure and content of programs. Policies in the allocation of scarce funds for resources are also extremely important in their effect on curriculum, and all too frequently these follow an established pecking order - academic subjects before general subjects, senior classes (especially examination classes) before junior classes, and, where classes are streamed, bright students before less able students - rather than allocation according to need.

Student characteristics, particularly ability levels and ethnic background, are frequently important determinants of curriculum but do not necessarily carry implications for curriculum style. The watering down of courses designed for more able students is still a common approach to the provision of courses for the less able, and, while schools appear more ready nowadays to face up to the problems of students from diverse ethnic backgrounds, the translation of this concern into effective curriculum alternatives is far less evident. The quaint notion that social education is only appropriate for non-academic students is still encountered in many schools. As a leading American educator has commented after visits to schools in all Australian States:

> One of the greatest limitations upon the advancement of the social studies in Australian schools is the misconception commonly evidenced that the social studies are not an essential core of general education for all. (Gross, 1976:15)

The perceived demands of parents and employers and the expectations of the wider community are important considerations for most case study schools in arriving at decisions about the curriculum. The active involvement of parents or employers in curriculum decision-making does take place in a small number of Type II and Type III schools, and one case study school has used the results of a survey of parent opinion as a basis for curriculum decision-making. More often however the school's perception of the demands and expectations of parents, employers, and the community appears to be based on gut feeling and the more spectacular assumptions of the media debate, rather than on any systematic attempt to find out what these demands and expectations might be. Work experience and community service programs in a number of schools have led to improved school-community contact, and may provide a vehicle for improved communication on curriculum expectations. The current unfavourable media image of schools is a frequently encountered cause for concern and, while the reaction is often defensive, does appear to have stimulated some rethinking of the curriculum, especially in the area of basic skills.

The career structure of the teaching profession appears to have an important bearing on curriculum style, particularly in the fairly widespread conviction among teachers that schools are conservative institutions, that the 'system' does not reward innovation, that the penalties for boat-rocking generally outweigh the pedagogical plaudits, that 'if you stick your neck out, you're likely to get your head chopped off'; although it must be stated that there are innovative schools, particularly in the independent sector, where the climate is quite the reverse and is perceived as such by the teachers; and there are innovative teachers who are prepared to buck the system, sometimes without conspicuous damage to their promotion prospects.

Closely linked to this is an awareness of the need for survival - survival in the classroom, survival in the school, survival in the system. A feeling of security in the known and tried, of vested interest in what has been laboriously learned or developed, a fear that the new may not be so manageable, and an awareness of the knife edge between control and chaos in the class-room, are typical of the concerns of teachers which undoubtedly have an influence on curriculum style.

The influence of centralized authorities on curriculum style is more evident in New South Wales, where the greater involvement of the Education Department and the statutory boards in the provision of syllabuses and syllabus guidelines and certification requirements at the Year 10 level are perceived by teachers as restricting their initiatives in curriculum development, than it is in Victoria, where there is a longer history of individual school responsibility in matters of curriculum. Certification requirements, in particular, are a constantly recurring theme in the interviews with New South Wales teachers (see for example Case Study 1) in both independent and state schools. The most frequent references to the bureaucracy among Victorian teachers concern a perceived inadequacy in support services for school-based curriculum development. The provision of course outlines and centrally developed curriculum materials are not seen by most teachers as providing the answer to their needs. Rather they see a need for greater access to skilled personnel who can assist them in developing their own curriculum along the lines they see to be relevant. In both States, however, the permeation of the influence of the Higher School Certificate into the curriculum for the lower years is strikingly evident. Many schools see their performance as being judged largely by their HSC results, and the need to maximize performance at that far off hurdle is a conscious factor in determining courses in the earlier years, even for those who are never likely to reach it.

Charismatic leadership in curriculum appears to be relatively rare, but where it occurs it is of central importance to the development of curriculum style. It appears to be an important ingredient of successful innovation, and crucial to the development of a Type III style. The evidence of the study suggests that it is likely to be most effective when it emanates from the principal, but most principals apparently prefer to cast themselves in the role of administrator and arbitrator, leaving curriculum decisions in the hands of heads of departments, subject co-ordinators, or staff curriculum committees.

Underlying most of the above factors is the problem of communication. Whether it is best considered as a separate category or as an underlying thread linking all categories is of little consequence so long as its importance is recognized. Communication within the school - between subject departments, between teachers, between administration and staff - as well as openness to ideas from outside the school and access to those ideas are all integral to the development of curriculum style. The frequent appearance of mixed styles (see Chapter 8) is not solely the product of professional pluralism; it can also result from a breakdown in communication. The lack of opportunity in most schools for staff to come together to discuss curriculum issues and the difficulties of inservice training at the school level are formidable obstacles to an effective change of style, even where the desirability of such a change is generally recognized and accepted.

No doubt there are other factors, perhaps more important, which influence the development of curriculum style. This brief discussion lays no claim to being either definitive or exhaustive, nor indeed to do anything more than bring together some incidental data in order to open up for discussion an interesting area for further research.

SECTION THREE

A TYPOLOGY OF CURRICULUM STYLE

Evans: You'll teach them education and I'll show them how to lay a brick and make a good job of a bit of carpentry.

Olim: And I'll give them astrology and trumpet-playing.

- Giles Cooper: Mathry Beacon

CHAPTER 7

EXTENDING THE TYPOLOGY

While the evidence of the case studies generally confirms the viability of the basic typology as a means of classifying school programs in social learning, it is clear that there are marked differences between schools classified together under the same broad stylistic type; and that the typology, if it is to be useful beyond the immediate needs of the present study, must take account of these within-style variations. Some attention was given to this problem during the original conceptualization of the typology, but it was decided that, since only the broad categories were needed for the immediate purpose of selecting schools, the sounder course would be to allow the case studies themselves to furnish the empirical evidence on which such extension and refinement of the typology could proceed. Accordingly, the extensions to the typology proposed in this chapter draw their inspiration and legitimation not from the curriculum debate, but from the actual programs in social learning offered by the case study schools.

Generic Focus

In defining curriculum style by its focus, we have been concerned with certain structural components of the curriculum itself; with what could be termed its *formal* focus. In analysing school programs in social learning it becomes clear that as well as this structural or formal focus there is also a focus concerned with the derivation or source of the curriculum, which could be termed its *generic* focus: a concern with elements lying outside itself which provide it with its justification and substance. Thus it is common for a curriculum or program to focus on a school 'subject' or academic 'discipline' and to take its justification and substance from the body of knowledge associated with that subject or discipline. Alternatively, a curriculum can focus on the 'real' world, deriving its justification and substance from elements of that real world such as the society or the environment. Yet again, a curriculum can take as its focus the learner, deriving its justification and substance from the needs and interests of the individual student or group of students.

It also becomes clear that this generic focus cuts across the formal focus, providing another dimension within which curricula can be

Table 7.1: Curriculum Style: The Extended Typology

FORMAL FOCUS		GENERIC FOCUS			
		STYLE:	Type a DEFINITIVE	Type b INTERACTIVE	Type c RESPONSIVE
STYLE	FOCUS	FOCUS:	The Subject/ The Discipline	The Society/ The Environment	The Learner
TYPE I EXPOSITORY	Content		*	*	*
TYPE II FUNCTIONAL	Process		*	*	*
TYPE III SITUATIONAL	Context		*	*	*

differentiated. Table 7.1 proposes a two-dimensional classification of curriculum style incorporating both formal focus and generic focus. This extended typology postulates three further curriculum styles - a Type a, or definitive, style; a Type b, or interactive, style; and a Type c, or responsive, style - occurring *within* each of the basic style types. As with the basic types, the extended types are also defined, not by their boundaries or the range of their concerns, but by their *focus*, as follows:

> A *Type a, or definitive, style* is one whose generic focus, or principal source of justification and substance, is the *subject* or the academic discipline which gives rise to it.
>
> A *Type b, or interactive, style* is one whose generic focus, or principal source of justification and substance, is the *society* or the environment.
>
> A *Type c, or responsive, style* is one whose generic focus, or principal source of justification and substance, is the *learner*, either individually or as a member of a group.

The extended typology thus postulates nine specific style types classified according to both their formal focus and their generic focus. Again there is no implication that the focus which defines a particular style precludes a concern with the other sources identified in the typology. Nor is it intended to revive here the specious distinction between 'teaching subjects' and 'teaching children', specious because it confuses a grammatical distinction with a pedagogical one. The definition of style according to its focus does not necessarily imply exclusiveness, or a lack of concern with the other curriculum elements; but it does point to the principal source of decisions concerning both the form and the substance of the curriculum. It thus provides a useful means of classifying some of the within-style differences observed in the basic typology while retaining the principle of defining a style according to its focus.

The Specific Styles

We continue our discussion of the extended typology with brief summary descriptions of the nine specific style types identified in the typology, drawing on the programs of the case study schools for illustrative examples of the styles as they appear in practice. Individual programs, rather than total school programs, are used, both for reasons of space and because it would not be possible to illustrate all the specific style types by

Table 7.2 The Extended Typology: Case Study Programs

STYLE	Type a DEFINITIVE	Type b INTERACTIVE	Type c RESPONSIVE
TYPE I EXPOSITORY	History/Geography at School A Case Study 1 (Chapter 3)	Here and Abroad at School A Case Study 1 (Chapter 3)	SEL at School R Case Study 4 (Chapter 7)
TYPE II FUNCTIONAL	History at School F Case Study 5 (Chapter 7)	Humanities at School H Case Study 2 (Chapter 3)	Careers at Schools A & H Case Studies 1 & 2 (Chapter 3)
TYPE III SITUATIONAL	Language Studies at School M Case Study 3 (Chapter 3)	Social Studies at School M Case Study 3 (Chapter 3)	Community Aid at School G Case Study 6 (Chapter 7)

means of total programs from the case study schools. Where possible programs already described in Chapter 3 have been used as illustrations of specific style types. Where this has not been possible, programs from other case study schools have been selected to illustrate the particular style type. Table 7.2 itemizes these illustrative programs and indicates the chapter of the report in which the particular program is described.

A Definitive Expository Style

A Type Ia, or definitive expository, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the content of the learning and whose generic focus is on the subject or discipline. Its primary concern, then, is with content relevant to a specific subject or discipline and legitimized by it, for example Tudors and Stuarts; deserts, savannahs, and rainforests; banking and the money supply. It is probably the most common style type found in Australian schools, at least insofar as the social area of the curriculum is concerned, but it should not be assumed that it precludes innovative treatment.

Examples of Type Ia programs can be found in the history and geography programs of School A discussed in Case Study 1, Chapter 3, pages 25-26.

An Interactive Expository Style

A Type Ib, or interactive expository, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the content of the learning and whose generic focus is on the society or the environment. Its primary concern, then, is with content relevant to the society, (such as poverty, unemployment, inflation) or the environment (such as conservation, pollution, resource technology). It tends to develop when schools are seeking more relevant courses, especially for younger or less able students.

An example of a Type Ib program can be found in the *Here and Abroad* course developed for the Years 7 and 8 module by School A, and discussed in Case Study 1, Chapter 3, page 27.

A Responsive Expository Style

A Type Ic, or responsive expository, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the content of the learning, and whose generic focus is on the learner. Its primary concern, then, is with content relevant to the needs and/or the interests of the individual student or group of students, such as careers education, sex education, or student-selected topics or themes. We need to beware here of classifying programs in which subject-based content is 'watered down' to suit lower ability students as displaying a Type Ic style. A Type Ic style is not simply a matter of selecting content of appropriate difficulty (presumably Type Ia and Type Ib programs will also show some concern for this), but of selecting content whose origin and justification lies in the perceived or expressed needs of the learner. We need to beware too of automatically classifying all careers education and personal development programs as displaying a Type Ic style. Many, perhaps most, such programs are more concerned with the development of skills than with the transmission of information, and are therefore more appropriately classified as Type II styles. The *SEL* program at School R, at least in its current stage of development, exemplifies a Type Ic style.

Case Study 4: *SEL* at School R

School R[1] is a medium sized (650 students) high school situated in one of Melbourne's outer suburban industrial areas. As the second high school in the area, its student intake is largely non-academic, with a high proportion of early school leavers. The school is currently undergoing a period of transition from a relatively traditional program to one that is more relevant to the needs of its students, and to this end a number of experimental courses have been added to the program. One of these is *SEL* - the acronym is derived from the component elements of the course: social studies, economics, and legal studies - which has been introduced as a core subject in Years 9 and 10 and 'has been designed primarily with the early school leaver in mind'. Its aims are set out in the course outline as to:

1. have the students develop a much wider vision of their career prospects and self-worth;
2. introduce them to the value of sound financial management;
3. make them critically aware of the influence of Governments on their lives and to develop value judgments on what is best for them and their country;
4. be aware of their legal rights both as a member of society and as a consumer.

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[1] See also Chapter 8, Case Study 8.

The degree to which the component elements of social studies, economics, and legal studies are integrated varies from teacher to teacher, with some teachers preferring to keep them conceptually separate and others preferring a more interdisciplinary approach, although the topic organization of the present course outline makes this difficult. While skills development is important, especially in some topics (e.g. money management) there is little doubt that the major emphasis of the course, at least at the current stage of its development, is on the provision of useful practical information geared towards survival in modern society.

> My major emphasis is just to tell the kids about these different things, things that they are going to come in contact with, that our kids here tend to be very, sort of limited - er - in the output that their parents sort of give. Their parents might not even know where to go to contact somebody in the Federal government, or the State government, or even in a local government and I guess my emphasis is just trying to make the kids more aware of all these places where they can go and seek help ...

The course, however, is a new one and a developing one and, while there is little doubt that the emphasis on the needs and interests of the students will continue

> ... it's all geared towards them ... to make it so they're interested in it, because if they're not we're going to lose 'em straight away ...

there are indications of a development in the future towards greater integration of the component elements and towards a more skills-based approach which could result in a shift in curriculum style.

A Definitive Functional Style

A Type IIa, or definitive functional, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the process of learning and whose generic focus is on the subject or discipline. Its emphasis is on methodology in the particular discipline, and/or on skills relevant to the particular subject or discipline, for example an emphasis on mapping and field work skills in geography. The history program at School F exemplifies a Type IIa style.

Case Study 5: History at School F

School F is a small (350 students) non-denominational independent girls' school on Sydney's north shore. The curriculum is discipline-oriented, and school organization is traditional, with an emphasis on high standards of dress, behaviour, and performance. The school sees itself as generally reinforcing the upper middle class values of the homes from which its students are mainly drawn, although with a degree of resignation rather than with whole-hearted approval. It might therefore be expected that the school's program in social learning would be squarely within the Type Ia tradition, and indeed the school was included in the sample as a good example of a Type I style. In the event, however, the selection panel's typing proved to be astray - yet another illustration of the dangers of stereotypic assumptions.

History at School F is a compulsory subject for all students in Years 7-10. As with School A (Case Study 1), Departmental syllabuses are basically followed:

> ... we teach ancient history in first form; Renaissance, Tudors, eighteenth and nineteenth century history in second form; and then in Years 9 and 10 its mainly Australian history ...

although the Australian history courses in Years 9 and 10 place a strong emphasis on local history. Unlike School A, however, the adoption of the Departmental syllabus is not interpreted as implying a content emphasis:

> I think the process in a way is more important than the content. I think there are certain skills we try to introduce right from the word go in first year, skills of interpretation, skills of sorting information, organizing data, research skills, all these sorts of things, that I think are important in the study of history particularly, and these are skills that we would all try to introduce right from the word go, using the sort of content that we think applicable to the particular age group ...

As well as these methodological skills, considerable emphasis is placed on the skills of orderly presentation of data, particularly essay-writing:

> We do try to involve the students as much as possible in an active way in the learning process; but there are certain literary skills which I think are particularly important in history because I think history is a literary subject.

This emphasis on skills should not however be interpreted as implying that content is unimportant. Course objectives are specified in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, with the knowledge objectives emphasizing conceptual rather than informational outcomes. There is little doubt however that the process emphasis provides the major focus for the program:

> Because they are less concrete parts of our objectives, skills and attitudes are probably in more need of deliberate and systematic planning. Teachers should avoid a mere content-based approach to history where skills and attitudes might occasionally appear in a haphazard fashion.

and this is reinforced in the attitudes objectives by a particular emphasis on the development of

> ... a regard for objective inquiry through self-reliance and independence in appraising evidence and in forming judgments.

Perhaps more importantly, this process emphasis is carried through into the school's assessment procedures. Thus a substantial section of the Form IV examination paper in history - formal examinations play an important role in assessment - is devoted to the interpretation, analysis, and evaluation of historical evidence.

While it is hoped that these skills will have a wider and more general application, they are clearly seen within the context of the discipline

> ... our aim in the first four years of history teaching is to develop an interest in the subject ... at the same time teaching these various skills ... and to bring them to an interest in the subject as a discipline. I think that history as a discipline is an important thing, particularly in the fifth and sixth form, so that one of my aims in the first four years would be to develop the interest in the subject ...

and it is this twofold emphasis on process and the discipline that distinguishes a Type IIa style.

An Interactive Functional Style

A Type IIb, or interactive functional, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the process of learning, and whose generic focus is on the society or the environment. It is likely to emphasize more generalized intellectual and social skills such as inquiry, cognitive development, problem solving, decision-making, values analysis, social interaction, and group membership skills.

The humanities program at School H described in Case Study 2 (Chapter 3, pages 30-32), with its declared emphasis on 'learning how to understand oneself/understand society/participate in society', is an example of a Type IIb style.

A Responsive Functional Style

A Type IIc, or responsive functional, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the process of learning and whose generic focus is on the learner. It is therefore likely to emphasize skills relevant to the needs of the individual student or group of students, such as survival skills, competence, personal growth and development, values clarification, and discovery learning. Many, although by no means all, remedial and special education programs could be considered as displaying a Type IIc style.

The careers education programs at Schools A and H as described in Case Studies 1 and 2 (Chapter 3, pages 28 and 32 respectively) provide examples of a Type IIc style.

A Definitive Situational Style

A Type IIIa, or definitive situational, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the context in which the learning takes place and whose generic focus is on the subject or discipline.

Because of the wide range of possible contexts, and the often idiosyncratic nature of the particular context, Type III (situational) styles are more difficult to pin down in general terms than Type I and Type II styles are. This is particularly true of the Type IIIa, or definitive situational style, which appears to be a relatively rare style type in the junior secondary school, at least in the social area of the curriculum. One case study school, however, is currently debating the implications of teaching the traditional subjects in the context of a Christian school. Should they be taught differently than they are in the secular system? Can they be taught differently? If not, has the school any right to call itself a Christian school on the basis of a few periods a week of bible studies and the singing of hymns at assembly? Whether such questioning will in fact result in the emergence of a Type IIIa curriculum - and there is little sign at the moment that it will - it nevertheless embodies the sort of focus that a Type IIIa style could be based on.

The language studies program at School M described in Case Study 3 (Chapter 3, page 37), which was conceived as contributing to the school's special international emphasis, but which is perceived by the teachers as a discipline-based language program in its own right, could be considered as exemplifying a Type IIIa style.

An Interactive Situational Style

A Type IIIb, or interactive situational style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the context in which the learning takes place and whose generic focus is on the society or the environment. By comparison with a Type IIIa style, it is somewhat easier to pin down in general terms, although the range of possible social and/or environmental contexts which could provide the focus for a Type IIIb program is clearly wide and diverse, ranging from the conservative to the revolutionary, and from the local community to international and global contexts. Despite this diversity, however, the social or environmental focus of the context is relatively easy to identify, as in the case of the social studies program at School M, described in Case Study 3 (Chapter 3, pages 36-37), which exemplifies a Type IIIb style.

A Responsive Situational Style

A Type IIIc, or responsive situational, style has been defined as one whose formal focus is on the context in which the learning takes place and whose generic focus is on the learner. As with the previous style type, the range of possible contexts which could give rise to a Type IIIc style is vast, but the style type is generally readily identifiable despite this diversity. Thus, whether the focus be identity, creativity, self-realization, or self-actualization, whether it be the pursuit of happiness or the attainment of individual potential, it is centred firmly on the experience of the individual learner or group of learners in the individual learning situation. It should be noted, however, that social concern and a concern for the individual student tend to be complementary and, while it is usually possible to identify one or the other as providing the major focus, both are likely to be strongly in evidence in Type III (situational) styles.

While a Type IIIc style is perhaps most readily associated with alternative schools, the example presented here - the community aid program at School G - illustrates the style type in a more conventional school setting.

Case Study 6: Community Aid at School G

School G is a medium-sized (620 students) country high school in the western region of New South Wales. The school serves a small market town of five and a half thousand people, including a substantial Aboriginal population, and the surrounding rural areas. Community aid is part of an interest elective program timetabled for one afternoon per week. It currently caters for about fifty students each term, although it is hoped to increase this number as organizational difficulties, mainly connected with the transport of students to and from activities, are overcome. While there is no compulsion - the nature of the program in any case precludes it - students are encouraged to devote at least one term during their school career to community aid. Students frequently return to community aid for a second or third term, despite a wide range of other interest electives.

Students take part in three different activities during their term of community aid, spending four to five weeks on each activity. Activities include such things as helping out at the local hospital, infants' school, and pre-school centre; helping with Meals on Wheels and other local welfare agencies; undertaking a range of jobs with local business firms; and assisting pensioners with their household chores such as gardening, lawn mowing, chopping wood, house cleaning, and ironing, or simply providing companionship and conversation.

While the community context within which the program operates clearly provides its formal focus, its classification illustrates the problem referred to above of determining whether the generic focus of the program is the society or the learner; of determining, in other words, whether the program is most appropriately classified as displaying a Type IIIb or Type IIIc style.[1] Clearly such a program could be focused on the society, on the needs of the community. Equally clearly in this case - at least in the eyes of the program's creator - the program draws its major inspiration and justification from the learning experience it provides for the students involved in it.

> I'll write down about twenty aims for you if you want twenty aims, but I realize that unless I'm very skilful with words and unless I think a lot about it, that's not going to cover all the aims that are being achieved. And I know they're being achieved, even though I haven't stated them. You know, it depends on the kid. If it's a shy kid and I talk them into joining community aid, my aim for that one kid might be to break down this shyness bit, give them a bit of confidence, because a lot of kids gain self-esteem just by working up at the old age home because people praise them so much ... Community aid's a misnomer, really ... There is a genuine community

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[1] Compare Case Study 3, Chapter 3.

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> aid program to help outsiders, but I'm not trying to help outsiders, I'm not that charitable. I'm trying to help my kids. But 'community aid' sounds better than a 'self-esteem program', and gets better community acceptance.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of the program, and the one that distinguishes it from most community service programs, is the use of community aid as a vehicle for social inquiry. In the course of their activities, students investigate questions related to the nature of institutions or the problems of the disadvantaged groups with which they are working. These questions are discussed, either individually or in small groups, with teachers attached to the program.

> In this way the teachers enable the students to understand themselves and the social world in which they live; using discussion, observation, data collection, formation of hypotheses, testing of hypotheses and forming opinions based on evidence.

The program however is not seen simply as an adjunct to the social science program:

> We have to be careful that in our adult minds we don't see tie-ins that don't exist ... I think that as long as kids have learning experiences in the social area ... as long as there's a change in knowledge and awareness and social analysis, social synthesis, social action, I think, you know, that this is important. Whether it's correlating or not who cares, really. If it's over and above what is normally offered within the school curriculum we're in front.

Organizational difficulties have prevented the exploitation of this aspect of the program to the extent that would be wished, but it is hoped that as the program grows and develops (it is only in its second year of operation) - this aspect will be more fully and more systematically integrated into the program. Thus it is hoped that eventually it will be possible to have groups of Aboriginal students, for example, involved in a systematic inquiry into the problems of old age through community aid to pensioners and the elderly which may help them to develop a clearer insight into their own problems as a disadvantaged group by placing them in a wider context of social disadvantage.

Classifying the Curriculum in Social Learning

It will be clear from the case studies that the classification of individual programs within the school's overall program presents, in the main, fewer problems than the classification of the overall program itself. As we have noted previously, it is usual for schools to have at least some programs

Table 7.3 Classifying the Curriculum in Social Learning: Three Case Study Programs

	Case Study 1	Case Study 2	Case Study 3
School:	A	H	M
Program:	social education (total program)	social education (total program)	social education (total program)
Style Type:	Ia	IIb	IIIb
Style:	definitive expository	interactive functional	interactive situational
Program Components:	**Program Classification**	**Program Classification**	**Program Classification**
	History (8-10) Ia Geography (8-10) Ia Commerce (8-10) Ia Asian Social Studies (8-10) Ib Here and Abroad (7) Ib Home Science (8-10) IIc Personal Development (7-10) IIc Careers (10) IIc	Humanities IIb Careers IIc Subject Extensions IIc	Social Studies IIIb Family of Man IIIb Language Studies IIIa Activities IIIc

which extend their range of concern beyond the main area of focus. It would appear then that, where the unit of classification is the school's overall program, the focus will seldom be exclusive, the data seldom unequivocal. Individual programs, on the other hand, tend to have a clearer focus which, if not exclusive, is, in the main, readily identifiable. It follows, then, that the typology is likely to prove most useful in the classification of individual courses or programs; and that the school's overall program is most usefully described in terms of the individual courses or programs contributing to it.

Certainly this is a prerequisite to any overall classification, since it is the only way in which an objective classification can be carried out. A quantitative element can be introduced into the process by using time spent on learning (period allocation) and number of students involved in the program as a method of weighting the various contributions of the individual programs. The method could be extended if desired to include a breakdown for different groups of students following different combinations of courses.

Table 7.3 sets out program classifications for the three case study schools discussed in Chapter 3, School A, School H, and School M, following the principles developed in this chapter. There are of course other ways in which the typology could be used for the classification of the school curriculum. This method is presented because it has been found to be practically useful in the present study. Difficulties of classification arising from mixtures of styles, both within the total program and in individual programs, are taken up in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8

MIXED AND COMPOSITE STYLES

As might be expected, it is not uncommon to find some mixture of styles, especially where the unit of classification is the school's total program in social learning. Thus for example School A (Case Study 1) which was classified in the previous chapter (Table 7.3) as displaying a Type Ia (definitive expository) style also provides courses in home science, personal development, and careers which display a Type IIc (responsive functional) style. Even where the unit of classification is the individual department or program, mixtures of styles are not unusual. Thus a department may offer a Type Ic (responsive expository) elective in addition to its Type Ia (definitive expository) major; a history program which is predominantly Type Ia (definitive expository) may include a segment on local history displaying a Type II or Type III style; a content-based geography course may include a Type II (functional) segment on mapping; and so on. In a typology which defines a style by its focus rather than by its range of concern, such mixtures present no real difficulty in classification. Quantitative measures can be employed (number of periods allocated, number of students involved) to determine the major focus of the program and the appropriate style classification, using the separate classification of program components to indicate diversity within the program.

Cases do occur, however, especially where the school is the unit of classification, where, either by design or accident, by the adoption of a policy of conscious ecelecticism or by the delegation of authority for the curriculum to individual departments and teachers, or because the school itself is in a transitional stage towards a school-based curriculum, there is no clear focus for the program. While it is in fact possible to force such cases into one of the nine style types on the basis of a purely quantitative analysis, such a classification is likely to prove misleading, implying a clear focus where no such clear focus exists. It therefore seems preferable to make provision in the typology for the differentiation of these genuinely 'mixed' styles from those in which a clear focus does exist despite evidence of an extended range of concern.

Some of these 'mixtures' occur essentially within one of the basic style types; others occur across the basic types, but within one of the generic types; while others involve mixtures along both dimensions of the typology. One way of approaching the problems of classification created by these various mixtures is to set up extra categories in the typology to accommodate them, and this procedure was in fact followed in classifying programs in the present study. Mixtures involving the basic style types were designated as Type X, or *mixed*, styles, while mixtures of specific styles within the same basic style type were classified as Type x, or *composite*, styles.

Another and perhaps more interesting approach is to look at mixed and composite styles in terms of four clearly differentiated substyles related to the reasons for the lack of a clear focus in the curriculum. These four substyles can be designated as *pluralist*, *transitional*, *eclectic*, and *syncretist*.

In the first two of these - the *pluralist* and *transitional* substyles - the mixture of styles is largely inadvertent, unplanned, and essentially unstable. A *pluralist* substyle is largely a *laissez-faire* mixture resulting from the delegation of authority for the curriculum to individual departments or teachers, with little or no overall co-ordination of programs. The 'mixture' is likely to change from year to year with changes of staff. A *transitional* substyle is particularly likely to occur when a school is moving from an established pattern towards a genuinely school-based curriculum. Experimental programs are likely to be running alongside established programs, and there is often an element of confusion and uncertainty, sometimes exacerbated by external constraints and internal resistance.

In the remaining two substyles, the *eclectic* and the *syncretist*, the mixture of styles is deliberate and planned for, and likely to be relatively stable. An *eclectic* substyle involves a conscious and planned mixture of styles which recognizes individual differences and preferences, and sets out to offer alternative choices. A *syncretist* substyle also involves a conscious and planned mixture of styles, but it seeks to synthesize and bring together the best elements from a number of styles. The eclectic substyle offers choice from a range of alternatives; the syncretist substyle seeks to rationalize and synthesize the available alternatives.

The four case studies to be considered in this chapter are not concerned with exploring in any detail the programs in social learning of the schools concerned, interesting though these may be. Their purpose is rather to look at some of the reasons why these schools have developed mixed or composite

Table 8.1 Classifying the Curriculum in Social Learning: Mixed and Composite Styles

	Case Study 7		Case Study 8		Case Study 9		Case Study 10	
School:	T		R		S		P	
Program:	social education (total program)		social education (total program)		social education (total program)		social education (total program)	
Style Type:	Xx		Xc		Xc		IIIx	
Style:	composite mixed		responsive mixed		responsive mixed		composite situational	
Substyle:	pluralist		transitional		eclectic		syncretist	
Program Components:	Program	Classification	Program	Classification	Program	Classification	Program	Classification
	History	Ix	History	Ia	Humanities A	IIa	General Studies	IIIb
	Geography	Ix	Geography	IIa	Humanities B	IIIc	Geography	IIIa
	Commerce	Ib	SEL	Ic	Humanities C	IIIb	Forum	IIIc
	Man in Society	Xb	Human Relations	Ic	Humanities D	IIc	Activities	IIc
	Consumer Education	Ib	Student Welfare	IIIc	Activities	IIc	Homestead/ Week Seven	IIIc
	Careers	IIc	Camping/ Excursions	IIIb	Camping/ Excursions	IIIb		
	Home Economics	IIc						
	Personal Development	Ic						
	'Fourth Term' Activities	IIc						

styles, and thus to illustrate in a practical setting some of the key features of the four substyles identified above. Classification details of the programs in social learning of the four schools are provided in Table 8.1, in which programs have been classified according to both their classification category (mixed or composite) and their substyle.

A Pluralist Substyle

A mixed or composite style in its pluralist form appears to be a particularly common style in Australian schools, especially in state high schools subject to a fairly rapid turnover of staff. This instability of staffing, together with a considerable amount of autonomy in curriculum decision-making for individual departments or classroom teachers, produces a mix of styles that is unplanned and largely fortuitous. While the school administration retains organizational control of the curriculum, largely through the timetable, the focus of the particular programs comprising the curriculum reflects the stylistic proclivities of the actual decision-makers at the time: heads of department, co-ordinators, or individual classroom teachers. The larger the school, the greater the likelihood that it will tend towards a composite mixed (Type Xx) style, and the greater the likelihood of shifts in the component mixture from year to year; although it should be noted that schools do appear to develop a certain inertia that resists any marked change of style. There is of course no implication in these observations that delegation of authority for the curriculum automatically produces mixed or composite styles, or that changes in staffing automatically result in changes in curriculum style.

Case Study 7 discusses a school whose program in social learning has been classified as exhibiting a composite mixed, or Type Xx style, and illustrates this pluralist substyle.

Case Study 7: Social Education at School T

School T is a large (1000 students) country high school situated in the western region of New South Wales. The school's program in social learning is centred on the history and social science departments, with important contributions from home economics and members of the science department who participate in the careers education and personal development programs. Members of staff from all departments contribute to 'fourth term', an interest elective program occupying the last three weeks of the school year.

and seen as contributing to the social education of students. The curriculum in the junior secondary school is currently organized on a module basis[1], but rumours of a return to external examinations at the Year 10 level have created similar fears and uncertainties regarding the future of programs as were observed in Case Study 1 (Chapter 3).

The school's composite mixed style basically stems from the delegation of authority for programs to individual departments and, within some departments, a considerable amount of encouragement for teachers to develop, within a broadly agreed framework, programs relevant to the needs of their classes. Perhaps more interesting from our point of view is the effect on the program in social learning of staff changes which took place between the first visit to the school in 1977 and the second visit in 1978. While this creates problems for the researcher - analysis and classification of programs become much more difficult - it is of considerable interest for the insight it gives into the instability frequently associated with pluralist substyles.

Thus a new head of department brought a shift of emphasis in the planned curriculum in history from a predominantly Type Ia style towards greater social relevance, and a shift from a predominantly informational approach to a more conceptual one, although it was too early at the time of the visit for these changes to have penetrated substantially into actual classroom practice. The arrival on the social science staff of a young teacher with new ideas and the ability to sell them to his colleagues resulted in the introduction of an innovatory geography course in Year 9, with its possible extension to Year 10 next year if the experiment is adjudged successful. Two new members of the science staff brought with them a personal development program which had been operating at their previous school and successfully introduced it into the program at School T.

On the opposite side of the ledger, an interdisciplinary social science program in Years 7 and 8 (*Man in Society*) may have suffered some loss of direction with the transfer of its originator at the end of 1977. While it is doubtful that the program had achieved in practice a process emphasis - some teachers find difficulty in switching from a content-oriented style even when they have accepted in principle the desirability of a skills-based approach - there is no doubt that that was the intention of the program's originator. It is currently poised somewhat uneasily between a Type Ib and Type IIb style, with its future direction unclear, particularly in the light of current uncertainty regarding the future of school-based curriculum and the module system.

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[1] See page 26, footnote.

A Transitional Substyle

With the current move towards school-based curriculum apparently gaining momentum in most Australian States, it seems likely the transitional form of the mixed or composite style will become more and more common, at least for a time. As the name implies, the mixture in this case results from a conscious perception of inadequacy in the existing curriculum and a conscious decision to move in the direction of change. Such changes are unlikely to occur neatly, and there is likely to be a period of transition in which styles are somewhat confused. New programs coexist with established programs which they may eventually supplement or replace, sometimes forcing a rethinking and a reshaping of the existing programs. The new programs themselves seldom come ready made, involving a period of experiment, of evaluation, of stabilization, before they become firmly established. The appreciation of the need for change, and perceptions of the desirable direction of change, are likely to be experienced differently among staff. Some will resist the changes, transferring their old wine to new bottles unaltered. Others, while accepting the spirit of change, will find it difficult to modify entrenched styles. The result is often a confused mixture of programs and styles in which the ultimate product of change might not be clear even to the participants. That transitional substyles are a temporary stage is implicit in the name; that they will ultimately result in a clearly defined style type is not a necessary implication. The end result may still be a mixed or composite style, though no longer a transitional one.

Case Study 8 discusses the program in social learning of a school currently in transition from a fairly traditional program to one seen to be more relevant to the needs of its students. It is currently classified as exhibiting a responsive mixed, or Type Xc style, although its transitional substyle classification implicitly acknowledges the need for regular revision of this classification.

Case Study 8: Social Education at School R

School R is a medium-sized (650 students) high school situated in one of Melbourne's outer-suburban industrial areas. As the second high school in the area, its student intake is largely non-academic, with a high proportion of early school leavers. The school is currently undergoing a period of transition from a relatively traditional program to one that is more relevant to the needs of its students, and to this end a number of experimental courses have been added to the program. One of these, *SEL* (social studies-economics-legal studies) was the subject of Case Study 4 (Chapter 7), where it served to illustrate a Type Ic, or responsive expository, style.

The school's program in social learning is currently a somewhat uncertain blend of established traditional programs in history and geography together with these more innovative and responsive experimental programs, and, as the transitional classification implies, is in the process of change. As with other aspects of the curriculum, the program in social learning is currently the subject of ongoing and spirited debate, principally through the medium of staff syllabus committees, with the impetus for change coming from an innovative principal who is deeply involved in curriculum matters and has the leadership qualities to carry his staff with him.

Clearly it is hazardous to attempt to predict the outcomes of such an open-ended process, but the school prospectus for 1978 does provide a clue at least to the intended direction of change:

> Because of the rapidity of the growth of knowledge today, the less specific nature of employment prerequisites and recent studies which reveal a variety of child learning techniques, emphasis in the curriculum has shifted from *teaching facts to learning skills*... The school is now much more concerned with *what the student is able to do* ... and *how he does it*, rather than in what facts he knows.

While this would appear to be more a statement of intent than an accurate description of the current curriculum - at least insofar as social learning is concerned - it does suggest that the school sees itself as moving towards a Type II, or functional, style; and the concern for developing programs more relevant to the needs of students which is evident in discussions with staff suggests that the ultimate goal may well be a Type IIc, or responsive functional, style with a wide range of concern. Whether this will in fact eventuate, or whether the curriculum will continue to display a mixture of styles, is at this stage impossible to predict, but what does seem likely is that if a mixed style does win out, it will be a somewhat more deliberate and planned mixture than the current rather tentative product of a curriculum in transition.

An Eclectic Substyle

In contrast to the two earlier substyles, an eclectic substyle involves a *planned* mixture of styles. It recognizes individual differences, individual needs, and individual preferences, and sets out to offer students, parents, and sometimes teachers, choices from among a range of alternatives. These choices are something more substantial than the choice of subjects or programs offered by most schools, or the elective programs that are becoming increasingly common as an adjunct to the school's basic programs. They offer a genuine choice between alternative *styles* of schooling.

Case Study 9 discusses a school whose program in social learning has been classified as exhibiting a responsive mixed, or Type Xc, style and illustrates this eclectic substyle.

Case Study 9: Social Education at School S

School S is a relatively large (800 students) co-educational technical school situated in Melbourne's outer north-eastern suburbs.[1] The school's program in social learning centres on the humanities department, but its distinctive eclectic substyle is essentially the product of the school's innovative organizational structure. The school incorporates four separate mini-schools, each with approximately 200 students. As with other mini-school systems, the division of the school into smaller, more manageable units is designed to promote better communication between staff and students and more cohesive social groupings. Unlike other mini-school systems, however, the system at School S also provides a choice for students, parents, and teachers of alternative styles of schooling. While the subjects offered within each mini-school are the same, each mini-school has its own distinctive educational philosophy and its own distinctive curriculum style.

Mini-school A is the most traditional and the most academically oriented of the four mini-schools, but its strong emphasis on skills places it in a Type II rather than a Type I classification. Mini-school D shares a similar emphasis on skills, but is more responsive in its curriculum to the expressed needs and interests of students. Mini-school B espouses a progressive educational philosophy, with more student participation in curriculum decision-making. It places a strong emphasis on social education, but sees it more as a product of the total environment of the mini-school and the close personal relationships that are developed between staff and students than of particular curriculum elements. Mini-school C sees itself as an 'alternative' school. It shares with mini-school B the emphasis on student participation and the fostering of close personal relationships between staff and students, but differs from it in its more radical philosophy and its greater emphasis on social awareness, involvement, and commitment.

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[1] See page 28, footnote.

The school thus offers a choice between two functional styles - a definitive functional and a responsive functional style - and two situational styles - a responsive situational and an interactive situational style. While the system is not without its problems and occasional failures in matching students and teachers to the appropriate mini-school for their needs and proclivities, by and large both students and teachers are quick to assure the outside observer that theirs is the *best* mini-school. It is this offering within the school of genuine educational alternatives which distinguishes the eclectic substyle.

A Syncretist Substyle

Like the eclectic substyle just illustrated, the syncretist style also offers a *planned* mixture of styles, but whereas the eclectic substyle seeks to offer a choice from among a range of alternatives, the syncretist substyle seeks to rationalize and synthesize the available alternatives to bring together what are perceived to be the best elements of a number of styles. While choices may be offered within the program, the distinguishing feature of the syncretist substyle is the desire to provide *all* its students with the benefit of a variety of styles and approaches to the curriculum.

Case Study 10 discusses a school whose program in social learning has been classified as exhibiting a composite situational, or Type IIIx, style, and illustrates this syncretist approach to the curriculum.

Case Study 10: Social Education at School P

School P is a small (250 students) co-educational independent school situated in a rural area just south of Melbourne, but drawing most of its students from the outer-suburban commuter belt. The individual style of the school's program in social learning stems more from its efforts to provide a stimulating and varied learning environment for its students than it does from particular program elements. Through the imaginative manipulation of time and space, the school has sought to create this richer and fuller learning environment by bringing together what it perceives to be the best elements of competing educational philosophies.

> In broad terms the program seeks to resolve the tension between traditional, progressive, and pragmatic values. Within the curriculum, formal studies are balanced with individual elective activities and special group projects. This provides a rhythmic variety of learning experiences through which students can become more considerate and more practical as well as more intelligent.

The school buildings consist of a number of 'homesteads' arranged in bushland settings around a central cluster of administrative and specialized facilities. These 'homesteads' double as classrooms during formal lessons, and as home bases for family groupings of 48 students cutting across age and grade levels, together with two or three members of staff, at other times. Homestead groups organize and conduct their own special projects, and are responsible for all cleaning, decorating, and maintenance for their own homestead area, thus providing for the development of a sense of territoriality and community, as well as a sense of social responsibility.

Just as the architectural and geographical setting has been exploited to provide a varied learning environment, so too the school day has been structured to provide for a variety of learning experiences. Four hours of each day - the first two hours in the morning and the last two hours in the afternoon - are devoted to formal studies in traditional subject areas. This leaves a period of two and a half hours in the middle of the day which is devoted to the enrichment of the program by providing students with 'a slice of life' through Activities (a program of interest electives designed to promote independence, initiative, and practical skills), Forum (a pastoral care session conducted in homestead groups) and Special Projects (the homestead projects referred to above). As with the school day, the middle week of each term (Week Seven) is given over entirely to this 'slice of life' program, providing an opportunity for more extensive participation in such things as work experience, community service, homestead camps, or field study excursions. In this way the school sees itself as providing a richer and more varied educational experience for its students than is normally provided by schools, with very little reduction in the time devoted to formal studies.

Close relationships with the community are actively sought and fostered, and both students and parents participate with staff in regular curriculum review sessions. It is this openness and willingness to bring together what is seen to be of value from a variety of sources that gives the school's composite situational style its distinctively syncretist approach.

The Expanded Typology

In this section of the report we have developed a procedure for classifying curriculum on the basis of style type. A typology has been developed providing for the two-way classification of curriculum according to both its formal, or structural, focus and its generic, or derivational, focus. This typology has been expanded to allow for the classification of mixed and composite styles.

The typology can be applied on a variety of levels. There will be occasions when the three basic style types will be adequate for the level of analysis required. There will be other occasions when the nine categories of the extended typology will prove more useful. And there will be other occasions when it will be necessary to expand the typology to include categories representing mixed and composite styles. No doubt there will also be occasions when there will be a need to go beyond the level of classification provided by the typology to analyse programs in terms of some other dimension of differentiation more appropriate to the particular purpose: a distinction between informational and conceptual approaches to content within Type I styles, for example, or between academic and vocational emphases within Type a styles. Clearly a typology which attempted to account for all such possible dimensions of difference, even if it could be constructed, would be so complex as to defeat the purpose of classification. Ultimately, of course, style is idiosyncratic. The virtue of the typology is that it is flexible enough to permit such extensions and refinements of classification should they prove necessary, while retaining a simple framework for the analysis of curricula in a variety of circumstances. Such flexibility is consistent with the concept of style as we have adopted it from criticism in literature and the arts, and should prove useful not only to the researcher, but also to schools engaged in the difficult business of developing curricula that are genuinely suited to their needs.

SECTION FOUR

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

..... all real unity commences
In consciousness of differences,
That all have wants to satisfy
And each a power to supply.

- W.H. Auden: New Year Letter

CHAPTER 9

SUMMING UP

The Social Learning Project set out to investigate current school practices and attitudes in relation to social education, with special reference to education for social competence. An important subsidiary aim of the study has been the attempt to develop a typology of curriculum style, to identify the characteristics of a number of different styles, and to explore their consequences for the kind of social education that students receive. The investigation was carried out by means of case studies of 20 schools, 10 in Victoria and 10 in New South Wales, selected to cover a wide spectrum of approaches to the curriculum in social education.

The concept of *style* itself derives from criticism in literature and the arts, where it occupies a key position roughly analogous to that occupied by a *model* in the sciences. In adopting the concept from criticism in literature and the arts the study has also adopted the principle of defining a style, not by its boundaries or the range of its concerns, but by its *focus*. Three basic curriculum styles have been identified and described: a Type I, or expository style, with its focus on *content*; a Type II, or functional style, with its focus on *process*; and a Type III, or situational style, with its focus on the *context* in which the learning takes place. A number of general observations have been made, at least insofar as the twenty case study schools are concerned, on the nature of the curriculum in social education and on the relationship between curriculum style and the kind of social education that students receive.

Three aspects of the curriculum in social education - the ideal, the planned, and the operative - have been explored from three different perspectives: those of the teacher, the student, and the outside observer (the researcher). There is a reasonably high level of agreement between teachers and students, between style types, and between schools on the ideal curriculum in social learning. The ideal curriculum as perceived by both teachers and students gives a high priority to relevant knowledge, inquiry and decision-making skills, personal development, social skills, and social values. It gives a relatively low priority to knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects, and to the newer social sciences. The planned curriculum displays similar emphases, but they are somewhat less marked.

Table 9.1 Summary of Specific Style Types and Typical Program Emphases

FORMAL FOCUS		GENERIC FOCUS			
		STYLE:	Type a DEFINITIVE	Type b INTERACTIVE	Type c RESPONSIVE
STYLE	FOCUS	FOCUS:	The Subject/ The Discipline	The Society/ The Environment	The Learner
TYPE I EXPOSITORY	Content		. content relevant to the subject or discipline	. socially relevant content . environmental studies	. content relevant to the needs and/ or interests of the learner
TYPE II FUNCTIONAL	Process		. methodology . skills relevant to the subject or discipline	. generalized intellectual skills . inquiry skills . social and group membership skills	. survival skills . competence . personal growth and development
TYPE III SITUATIONAL	Context		. local history/ local geography . ideological determinism	. citizenship . community studies . multicultural studies . international or global imperatives	. identity . creativity . self-realization . self-actualization

In contrast to the reasonably high level of agreement between teachers and students on the ideal curriculum in social learning, there are marked differences in their perceptions of the operative curriculum. Students see the major emphasis of the operative curriculum in social learning as being squarely on knowledge in the traditional subjects, while teachers see it as being on skills, personal development, and social values. They are somewhat more in agreement on the relatively high emphasis placed on social skills, and the relatively low emphasis given to the newer social sciences and to methodology in the traditional subjects.

Style type differences are more marked in the perceptions of teachers than in the perceptions of students, but there is reasonable agreement that the major emphases of the operative curriculum in social learning in Type I schools are on knowledge, especially factual knowledge in the traditional subjects, while the major emphases in Type III schools are on personal development, social skills, and social values, although students in Type III schools perceive a greater emphasis on knowledge than their teachers do. Teachers and students in Type II schools, however, are in disagreement about where the major emphasis of the operative curriculum in social learning lies, teachers seeing it as being on inquiry and decision-making skills, students on knowledge in the traditional subjects. Students in Type III schools perceive their school as placing more emphasis on social education in general than do their peers in Type I and Type II schools.

Somewhat surprisingly the study failed to reveal any strong relationship between curriculum style and other elements of the teaching-learning situation. While there does appear to be a positive relationship between curriculum style and preferred teaching methods and between curriculum style and educational goals, these relationships are certainly not definitive. A number of factors which appear to be influential in determining curriculum style were identified, among them school characteristics and organization, teacher characteristics, staffing and resources, student characteristics, perceived parent and community expectations, career structure, survival, the bureaucracy, and leadership. Underlying all of these factors are problems of communication which are particularly crucial to the implementation of curriculum change.

On the basis of programs operating in the case study schools, the typology of curriculum style has been extended to include three specific style types within each of the three basic styles already identified: A Type a, or definitive style, with its focus on the *subject* or the *discipline*;

a Type b, or interactive style, with its focus on the *society* or the *environment*; and a Type c, or responsive style, with its focus on the *learner*. The extended typology thus identifies nine specific style types classified according to both their formal, or structural, focus and their generic, or derivational, focus. These specific style types, together with typical program emphases, are summarized in Table 9.1.

In addition to the specific style types, provision has also been made for the classification of mixed and composite styles. In its expanded form the typology thus provides a flexible means of conceptualizing and classifying the curriculum in social education which is grounded in actual practice. It should therefore prove of interest to schools developing their own curricula, as well as to researchers and curriculum specialists.

CHAPTER 10

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In the previous chapter the main outcomes and findings of the study were brought together in summary form. In considering the implications of these findings, both for the school curriculum and for further research, the first question that arises is the extent to which they are applicable beyond the immediate sample of case study schools. The study itself cannot of course provide the answer to such a question. Nor was it designed to do so. In investigating the curriculum in social education it has sought to provide not so much generalizations as a series of working hypotheses which are consistent with a substantial body of field observation but require further testing and replication in a variety of situations if their wider applicability is to be demonstrated. These working hypotheses can be summarized as:

1 that style types similar to those identified by the study will be found in the social education programs of other schools and other school systems;

2 that the characteristics of these style types will be similar to those revealed by the present study; and

3 that these style types will have implications for the social education that students receive similar to those evident in the case study schools.

There is a need then for further studies both to test these hypotheses in a wider variety of school and curriculum situations, and to explore more fully the characteristics and determinants of curriculum style that have only been touched on in the present study.

Classifying the School Curriculum

Ultimately, style is idiosyncratic. While the expanded typology goes some way towards accounting for within-style differences, and provides a useful framework for analysing school programs, there are many possible dimensions of difference that it does not account for. Clearly there will be occasions when it is preferable to discuss style on an idiosyncratic basis, as is frequently the case in literary and art criticism. There will also be occasions when neither the extended typology nor the idiosyncratic approach will be quite adequate to the task, and there will be a need to go beyond

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the level of classification provided by the typology to analyse programs in terms of some other dimension of difference more appropriate to the particular purpose.

In a classification of styles which defines its categories by their focus, the most obvious source of difference lies in the relative narrowness or breadth of that focus. Thus we might postulate that each broad style represents a continuum, ranging from a rigid, doctrinaire application of the style to a flexible, open application, and that individual cases could be placed along this continuum according to the relative narrowness or breadth of their range of concern. While such a solution is consistent with the evidence of the case studies, Bennett's (1976) inability to order his empirically-derived types along a bi-polar continuum might give us a warning that individual differences in style do not readily accommodate themselves to straight-line models, and that the establishment of broad categories is likely to prove a more practical means of classifying style according to its range of concern.

Another approach to the extension and refinement of the typology is through the categorization of substyles within each of the major style types. For example, within Type I (expository) styles an obvious and meaningful distinction can be drawn between an informational, or topic-centred, approach and a conceptual, or thematic, approach to the organization of content. Other distinctions could be drawn between programs which place their major emphasis on remembering and those which emphasize understanding, application, or the creative realization of knowledge; or between the vehicles used for the transmission of knowledge, for example a textbook, a variety of resource materials, or the teacher-as-dispenser. Each of these, and many others, could provide meaningful directions for the breakdown of the style types into substyles. Whether one chooses to move in one or other of these directions will depend very much on the purpose of the analysis.

Inevitably the question arises as to the applicability of the typology to areas of the curriculum other than social education, and again the study has no definitive answers to offer, since its investigations were confined to the curriculum in social learning. There seems no reason, however, why the typology as it has been developed here, albeit with some modification and amplification, should not prove a useful analytical and classificatory device for areas of the curriculum other than social education. Certainly the principles of classification adopted, and the procedures employed in the development of the typology, are not limited to any particular area of the curriculum. Again we should see the study as providing a framework within which such wider applications can be explored.

Curriculum Style and School-Based Curriculum

The issue of school-based curriculum is currently a live one in Australian education, and there is every indication that it will continue to be so for some time to come. The Curriculum Development Centre has made it a central plank in its platform, and the Schools Commission signalled its interest by setting up in June, 1977, a national conference on school-based decision-making (Schools Commission, 1978). Perhaps more importantly, all States have begun to move away from the rigidly centralized control of curriculum that once characterized Australian education, and have begun to make gestures, however tentative, towards the devolution to individual schools of greater control over the programs they teach. As a result the cry is frequently heard from schools - and the schools in the present study are no exception - for more guidance in charting the treacherous shores of school-based curriculum. The concept of curriculum style, and the typology developed from it, could provide a focal point around which schools could organize their thinking and their planning in their efforts to build a curriculum genuinely suited to their unique needs, at least in the area of social learning; and the case studies, ranging as they do across the spectrum of approaches to the curriculum could provide a range of models from which schools could, initially at least, select according to their perceived needs and preferences. More specifically, the study could help to focus attention on the key issues which must be decided before more detailed planning can proceed.

Curriculum Style and Goal Satisfaction

In Chapter 4 it was noted that teachers as a group showed no marked conflict in the relative emphasis accorded the various items of social learning in their ideal and their operative curriculum, reflecting only a predictable gap between human aspirations and human performance in their translation of their ideal curriculum into practice. Students, on the other hand, saw much more conflict between their ideal curriculum in social learning and the operative curriculum as they perceived it, not only in level of emphasis but also in the relative emphasis given to the various elements of social learning. It was further noted that these differences between teacher and student

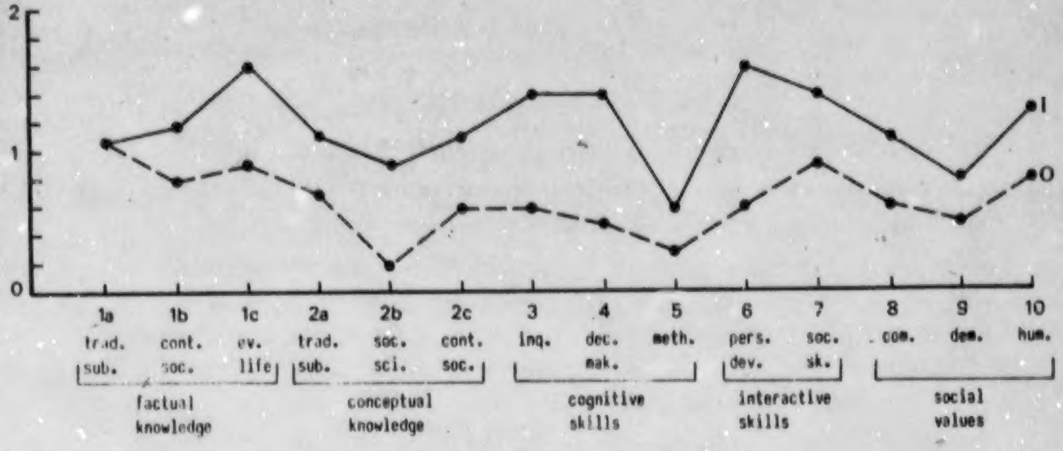

Figure 10.1 Curriculum Style and Goal Satisfaction: Type I Teachers

Profile Similarity: r = 0.49
D = 2.23

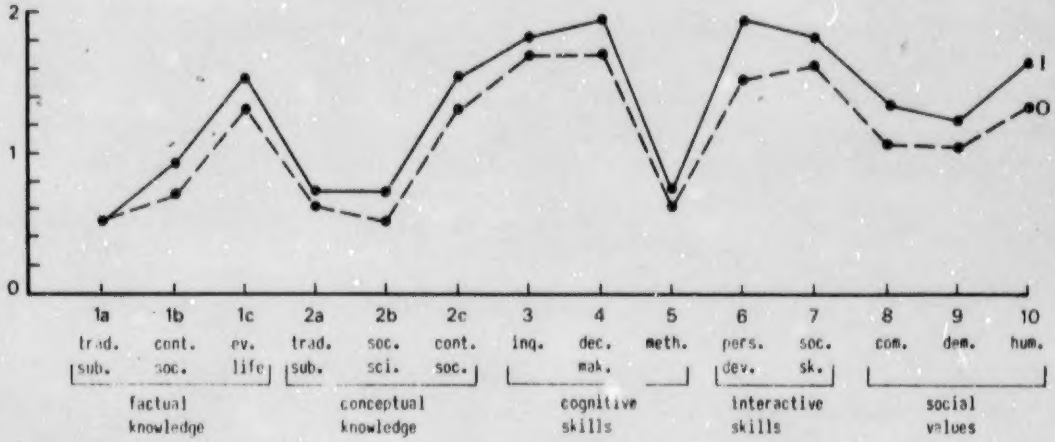

Figure 10.2 Curriculum Style and Goal Satisfaction: Type II Teachers

Profile Similarity: r = 0.98
D = 0.83

perceptions lay more in conflicting perceptions of the operative curriculum than in conflicting perceptions of the ideal.

One interesting aspect of these data that has not been brought out to date is that they could be considered as a measure of satisfaction with the operative curriculum in social learning: of the degree to which educational goals and aspirations are realized in practice. Looking at the data from this point of view, we would be forced to conclude that teachers on the whole are more satisfied with their performance in the area of social learning than their students are, despite a reasonable level of agreement on goals. Again, however, these aggregated data conceal interesting differences between style types.

Figures 10.1, 10.2 and 10.3 compare teacher perceptions of the ideal and the operative curriculum in social learning for each of the basic style types independently. The most immediately obvious feature of these comparisons is that while teachers in Type I schools perceive a marked gap between their ideal curriculum and the curriculum in practice, not only in level of emphasis (D = 2.23) but also to some extent in relative emphasis (r = 0.49), their colleagues in Type II and Type III schools appear to be much more satisfied with their performance, with teachers in Type II schools perceiving the greatest degree of concurrence between their ideal curriculum and the curriculum actually operating in their schools (r = 0.98, D = 0.83).

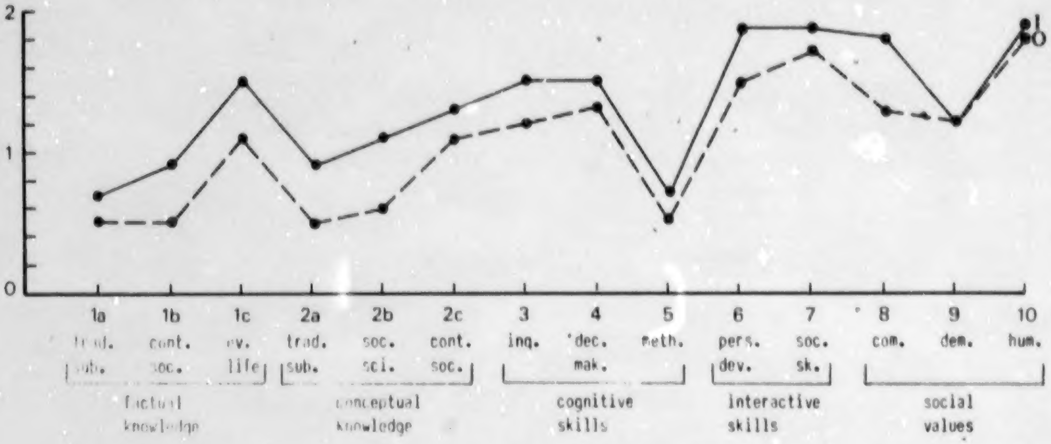

Figure 10.3 Curriculum Style and Goal Satisfaction: Type III Teachers

Profile Similarity: r = 0.94
D = *1.28*

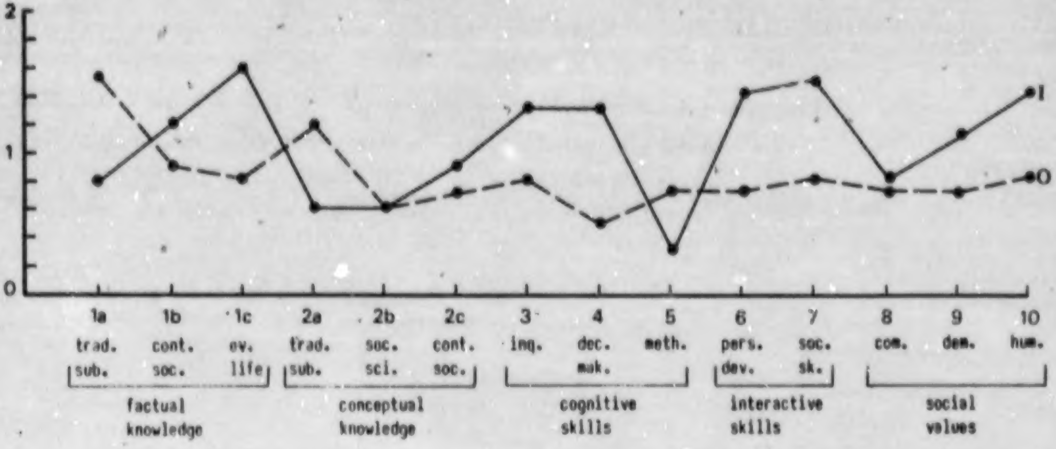

Figure 10.4 Curriculum Style and Goal Satisfaction: Type I Students

Profile Similarity: r = -0.25
D = 1.85

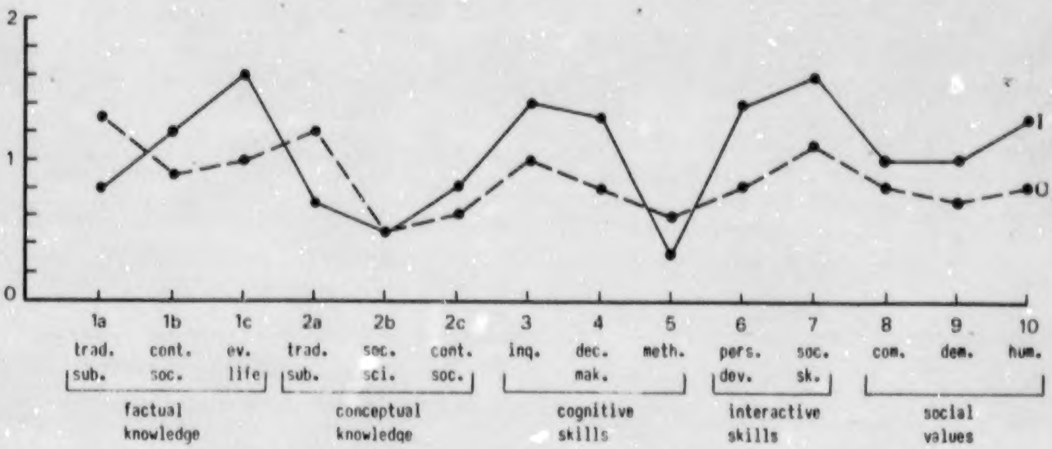

Figure 10.5 Curriculum Style and Goal Satisfaction: Type II Students

Profile Similarity: r = 0.29
D = 1.60

Teachers in Type I and Type II schools are apparently satisfied with the emphasis given to factual information in the traditional subjects (item 1a) - although they differ in the degree of importance attached to it - but they see all other items as receiving somewhat less than ideal emphasis. The perceived gap between the ideal and the operative, however, is considerably greater in all these items for teachers in Type I schools than for their colleagues in Type II schools. Teachers in both Type I and Type II schools see the greatest deficiency in the emphasis given to personal development (item 6), although teachers in Type I schools see a similar deficiency in emphasis on inquiry and decision-making skills (items 3, 4) which is not evident to their colleagues in Type II schools.

Teachers in Type III schools are apparently satisfied with the emphasis given to the development of humanitarian values. They are less happy with the emphasis achieved on other items, with the greatest perceived deficiencies being in the emphasis given to the newer social sciences (item 2b) and the development of a sense of community (item 8).

It will be recalled, however, that teachers and students differed markedly in their perceptions of the operative curriculum in Type II schools (r = -0.04, D = 2.01), which suggests that the high degree of satisfaction with the operative curriculum evidenced by teachers in Type II schools may be somewhat euphoric. Nevertheless we would have to conclude on the basis of the data presented in Figures 10.1, 10.2 and 10.3 that teachers in Type II and Type III schools, at least insofar as our twenty case studies are concerned, see themselves as achieving considerably more goal satisfaction in practice than their colleagues in Type I schools, and such a conclusion is supported by the evidence of the teacher interview data.

The most interesting feature of the style type comparison of student perceptions of the ideal and operative curriculum in social learning (Figures 10.4, 10.5 and 10.6) is the confirmation they give to the existence of style-related differences in goal satisfaction. Although the degree of satisfaction perceived by students is, as we would expect from our earlier observations, considerably less than that perceived by teachers, especially in the case of Type II schools, there are clear style differences that suggest somewhat similar patterns to those observed among teachers. As with teachers, it is the students in Type I schools who perceive the greatest dissatisfaction with the social education they are receiving. The negative correlation (r = -0.25) indicates considerable dissatisfaction with the relative emphasis placed on the various items of social learning, and the distance measure, while not so large as for teachers, is nevertheless substantial (D = 1.95). Students in Type II schools, while not showing the euphoric view of the operative curriculum in social learning that their teachers have, are nevertheless happier with that curriculum than their peers in Type I schools, with a small but positive correlation (r = 0.29) between the profiles and a somewhat smaller distance measure (D = 1.60). Students in Type III schools, on the other hand, are much more in accord with their teachers on the degree of goal satisfaction provided by the operative curriculum in social learning, with a fairly substantial similarity between profiles on relative emphasis (r = 0.72) and a comparatively moderate distance measure (D = 1.08).

Students in Type I and Type II schools perceive an almost identical pattern of discrepancy between the ideal and the operative curriculum in social learning. Both appear satisfied with the emphasis given to the newer social sciences (item 2b); both perceive an overemphasis on knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects (items 1a, 2a, 5); and both perceive an underemphasis on all other items of social learning, particularly relevant factual knowledge (item 1c), decision-making and social skills (items 4, 7), personal development (item 6) and humanitarian values (item 10). In all cases, however, the perceived gap is not so great for students in Type II schools as for their peers in Type I schools.

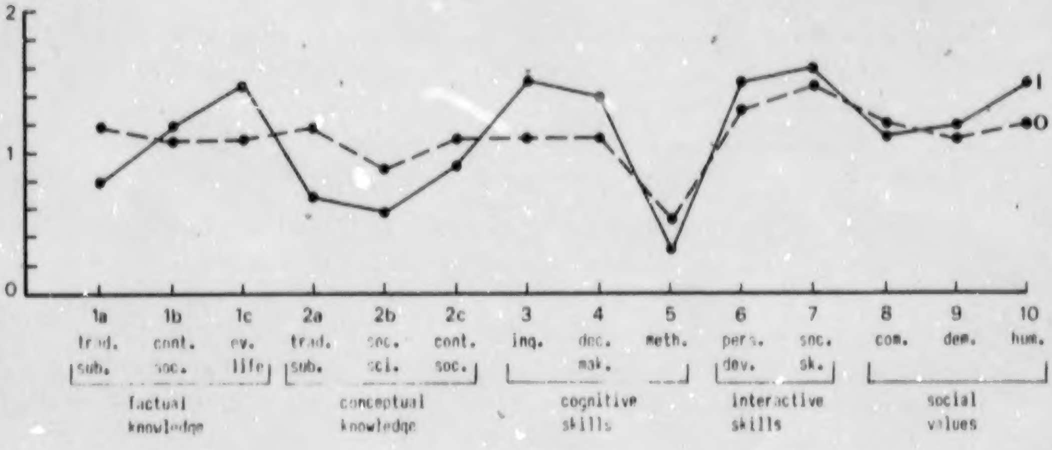

Figure 10.6 Curriculum Style and Goal Satisfaction: Type III Students

Profile Similarity: r = 0.72
D = 1.08

Students in Type III schools reveal some similarity to this pattern of discrepancy, particularly in the overemphasis on knowledge and methodology in the traditional subjects, but they also perceive an overemphasis on conceptual knowledge in general (items 2a, 2b, 2c). The items on which they perceive the most serious underemphasis in the operative curriculum are relevant factual information (item 1c) and inquiry skills (item 3).

These data are particularly interesting because they provide some objective evidence for the fairly strong subjective impression obtained during visits to the case study schools that there are marked differences between schools in the degree of satisfaction with the curriculum in social education, and that these differences are related to style type. The interview data also provide support for such a conclusion.

Curriculum Style and the Core Curriculum

Another issue currently dominating debate in Australian education is that of the core curriculum, and there is little doubt that it is, and will continue to be for some time, one of the central curriculum issues facing Australian schools. Definitions of the core abound, everything from the indispensable nucleus to the bit of the apple that is thrown away. For some it is that part of the curriculum that is externally examinable, or amenable to large-scale assessment; for others it is the 'basic' subjects, or the fundamentals of our cultural heritage; for others it is the needs of the workforce, or a preparation for life in a complex modern world; and much of the confusion currently surrounding discussion of the core curriculum is directly attributable to this variety of starting points.

The implications of the present study for considerations of the core curriculum are that, even if agreement is reached on the elements of definition, these elements are likely to produce very different results unless some attention is also paid to the question of curriculum style. Perhaps more importantly, it can be argued that any attempt to define a core curriculum involves some consideration of the role of social education, and in particular the nature and components of an education for social competence.

Towards a Definition of Social Competence

Sooner or later in any public discussion of social education the question is raised: *But what about the basics?* Often this is little more than a slogan, politically motivated, from people who feel threatened by change; but often, too, it is an expression of genuine concern that social education implies a downgrading of the basic skills of reading, writing, and number. There is no evidence in the present study that schools which show a concern for social education show a corresponding lack of concern with the so-called 'basics'. On the contrary, the evidence of the case study schools strongly suggests that those schools which place the greatest emphasis on social competence also place the greatest emphasis on the acquisition of the basic skills of language and number: a finding that would be quite unsurprising were we not so conditioned to the untested assumptions of the curriculum debate.

While all of the schools in the study show a concern for the basics - a finding which calls into question yet another cherished assumption of the curriculum debate - this concern is not always translated into practical programs for tackling the problem. Insofar as the case study schools are typical, the evidence of the present study suggests that specific programs for attacking the problem - remedial programs, language workshops, systematic withdrawal programs, language immersion, vertical grading, diagnostic assessment, individualized instruction, for example - are most likely to be associated with a Type II style, although this should not be taken to imply any necessary lack of emphasis on the basics in the broader programs of Type I and Type III schools. This is consistent with a Type II style's focus on process, and the consequent emphasis on the acquisition of skills.

Any definition of competence which ignores the basic skills of literacy and numeracy does so at its peril. The quarrel with the 'back to basics' position is not that 'the three R's' are inessential - there is no question of that - but that they offer an extremely limited definition of competence that is inadequate to the real demands of effective functioning in a complex modern society.

Inkeles has identified three kinds of roles which the individual must cope with if he is to function effectively in society:

> ... those which one's society will normally assign one, those in the repertoire of one's social system that one may reasonably aspire to, and those which one might reasonably invent or elaborate for oneself. (Inkeles, 1966)

Block has incorporated Inkeles's roles into a definition of competent students as:

> ... those who can, and want to, interact effectively with the three kinds of environment posed by the socially-ascribed, self-selected, and self-developed roles they face upon graduation from high school.

> Such students possess the particular competencies required to master most of these environments in motor and intellectual terms and in emotional terms. (Block, 1978)

Clearly such a definition implies something more than 'the three R's'. Clearly too it implies a social component. In *Essential Learning About Society* (Piper, 1977) an attempt was made to define the basic components of an education for social competence, and to examine the views of a number of groups in Australian society as to what might constitute such an education. In a very real and conscious sense the present study is rooted in the earlier one, carrying its concerns into an investigation of the curriculum in social education in Australian schools. Its findings therefore have implications for the earlier study, and for the definition of social competence emerging from it.

Curriculum Style and Social Competence

One of the outcomes of the *Essential Learning About Society* study was the identification of thirty-three items of social learning which were seen by a number of diverse groups in the society as being of key importance to effective functioning in the wider society. In constructing Part B of the teacher questionnaire and the student Q-sort cards, care was taken to ensure a generalized coverage of these key items. It therefore becomes possible to compare responses on selected items from the present study with responses on equivalent groups of items from the *Essential Learning About Society* study. Some caution is warranted in interpreting these comparisons, since neither the items nor the rating scales are precisely comparable. Nevertheless equivalencies are sufficiently close to permit meaningful comparisons which, if not precise, can afford some insight into the relationship between curriculum style and learning for social competence.

Figures 10.7, 10.8 and 10.9 compare the school perspective (that is, the combined perspectives of students and teachers, giving equal weight to each) on the operative curriculum for each of the three basic style types from the present study (SLP) with an item equivalency profile based on total sample data from the *Essential Learning About Society* study (ELAS). It will be noted that the operative curriculum in Type I schools (Figure 10.7) falls well short of the ideal as perceived by the *Essential Learning About Society* sample, both in the relative emphasis given to the various items ($r = 0.12$) and in level of emphasis ($D = 2.47$). The operative curriculum in Type II schools (Figure 10.8) comes a little closer to the ideal as perceived by the

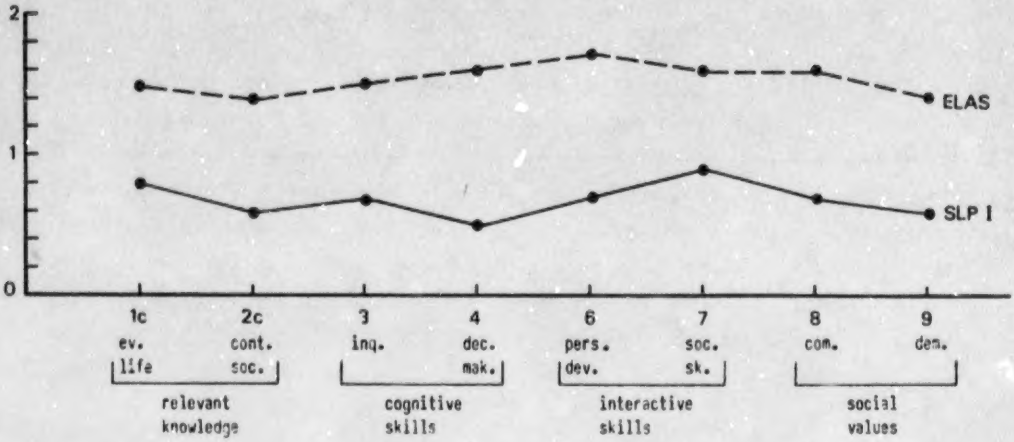

Figure 10.7 Curriculum Style and Social Competence: Type I Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.12
D = 2.47

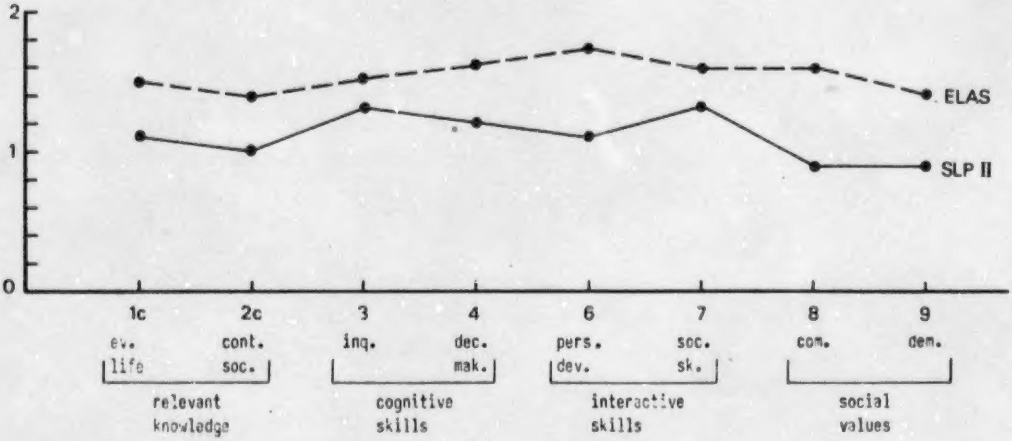

Figure 10.8 Curriculum Style and Social Competence: Type II Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.40
D = 1.31

Essential Learning About Society sample than that in Type I schools, but is still fairly far removed from it both in relative emphasis (r = 0.40) and in level of emphasis (D = 1.31); although it should be recalled here that there was considerable difference between the views of teachers and students in Type II schools on the emphases of the operative curriculum, and that teacher perceptions come somewhat closer to the ideal expressed by the *Essential Learning About Society* sample than the composite profile recorded here. By contrast with that in Type I and Type II schools, the operative curriculum in Type III schools (Figure 10.9) has a reasonable level of agreement on relative emphasis (r = 0.69) and also on level of emphasis (D = 0.95), and must therefore be seen as coming closest of the three basic style types to the perceived priorities of the community, at least insofar as those priorities are represented by the responses of the *Essential Learning About Society* sample.

Figure 10.10 compares the operative school profiles of the three basic style types on this limited range of items concerned with social competence. It is interesting to observe that style types are somewhat more evenly differentiated on this restricted profile than on the comparable full item profile (Figure 5.12), particularly in the differences in profile shape as reflected in the product moment correlation coefficients. This is particularly important in the distinction between Type II and Type III styles,

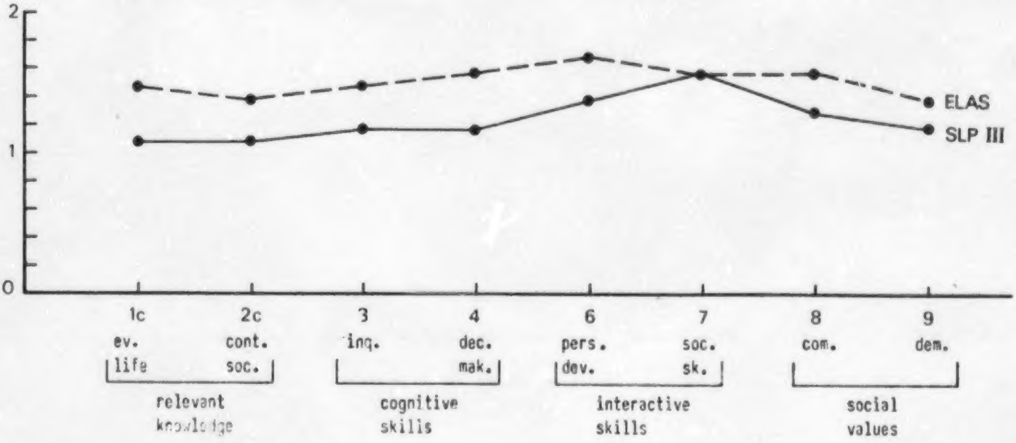

Figure 10.9 Curriculum Style and Social Competence: Type III Schools

Profile Similarity: r = 0.64
D = 0.95

where the correlation is reduced from 0.76 to 0.42 on the restricted profile. This suggests that restricted profiles based on social competence might prove to be a more economical and effective means of distinguishing between style types than the full social learning profiles. It will be noticed that distance measures are somewhat smaller on the restricted profile than on the full item profiles. This is to be expected, since the size of the distance measure is in part a function of the number of items, and the number of items has been reduced from fourteen to eight.

We are still however dealing with social competence within a theoretical/conceptual framework, even though we have been exploring it in the practical setting of the school curriculum. Perhaps we are dealing with nothing more than pious hopes. Before we can arrive at any firm conclusions concerning education for social competence, we must explore the relationship between curriculum variables, including curriculum style, and the actual problems faced by the young school leaver in coping with today's society. There is, for example, overseas evidence to suggest that broad social education programs may be more effective in the reduction of drug abuse than more

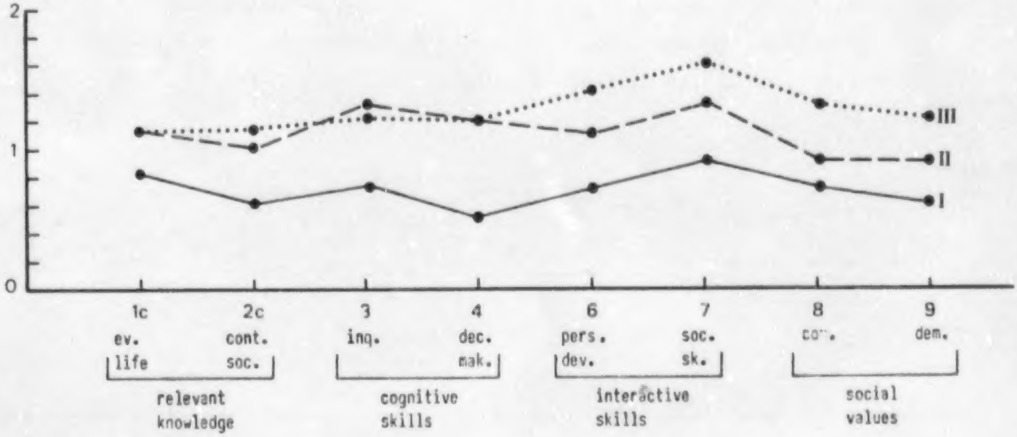

Figure 10.10 Curriculum Style and Social Competence: An Overview

Profile Similarity:

	I	II	III	
I		0.43	0.45	r
II	*1.38*		0.42	
III	*1.76*	*0.65*		
	D			

specifically oriented drug education programs (de Haes and Schuurman, 1975; Irwin, 1976). Clearly there is a need, parallel to and in addition to studies of the curriculum, for a program of research focusing on the problems of youth and their relationship to the curriculum in social education.

Curriculum Style and Curriculum Criticism

There has been an increasing awareness in recent years of the need for alternative methods of conceptualizing the curriculum (Mann, 1969; Goodlad, 1975; Pinar, 1975; Willis, 1975; Maling-Keepes, 1978), and in particular the need within curriculum studies for a body of disciplined curriculum criticism. In basing the concept of curriculum style, and the typology developed from it, on concepts and principles derived from criticism in literature and the arts, I have turned for models to those disciplines in which the art of criticism is most highly developed and most clearly articulated. In doing so there has been no intention of invoking the artificial and restrictive dichotomy between art and science that has bedevilled Western European thinking since the eighteenth century.

> In point of fact, the curriculum critic's task is more complex than the literary critic's, for whereas the literary object is static and wholly artistic, a curriculum object combines both scientific and artistic considerations and, as applied in a classroom, does not do the critic the courtesy of holding still. (Willis, 1975:6)

The study has been essentially concerned with the educational process, with what goes on in schools, rather than with the traditional emphasis on outcomes. It thus offers an alternative to the traditional input-output model that has tended to dominate educational research, especially in Australia. In doing so, it has sought to develop a methodology which involves a collaborative union between quantitative and qualitative techniques, between measurement and observation, between scientific and critical inquiry. The ground rules for such a union are not well established in educational research, but there is little to be gained from narrow dichotomies, from a restrictive either-or approach. If we are to begin to create the conditions for intelligent debate in this country on schools and schooling - and the first condition of such intelligent debate is a more thorough understanding than we now have of what goes on in schools - the researcher must make use of all the weapons at his disposal. The methodology employed in the study, and the typology of curriculum style derived from it, could extend his armoury.

In seeking for patterns of meaning in the curriculum in social education I have deliberately stopped short of evaluative judgment. My intention has not been to demonstrate that one style is superior to another, but that styles are different, and will have different consequences for the kind of learning that students receive. The critic's role is different to the practitioner's.

> Whereas the practitioner employs his stock in the context of discovering means and ends, the critic may employ the same stock as data for his analysis of the design of education events. Where the practitioner seeks solutions to problems, the critic seeks meaning in the manner in which problems are posed and solved. Where the practitioner may customarily evaluate his practices by examining their consequences, the critic construes practice as falling in designs that may be accounted for as expressions of meaning. (Mann, 1969:35)

The implications for evaluation are there, of course, but it is for the practitioner to determine their relevance to his or her own practice. Style might be thought of as a preferred mode of approaching complex problems, perhaps related more to personality than to theory, more to implicit values than to articulated models. The aim is not to reduce curriculum to a single preferred style -

> ... all real unity commences
> In consciousness of differences

- but to enable the practitioner to improve the quality of his or her own preferred style by developing a deeper understanding of it, and its relationship to alternative styles.

> There can be no human society without conflict: such a society would be a society not of friends but of ants. Even if it were attainable, there are human values of the greatest importance which would be destroyed by its attainment, and which therefore should prevent us from attempting to bring it about. (Popper, 1976:116)

APPENDIX I

THE INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE STUDY

(i) Teacher Questionnaire

(ii) Student Q-sort cards

AUSTRALIAN COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

SOCIAL LEARNING PROJECT

Directions for Completing the Questionnaire

Information given in response to this questionnaire will be used solely for reporting on current practices in social learning in Australian schools, and will be treated with absolute confidentiality. In reporting the findings of the study, no individual or school will be identified by name.

The questionnaire is in two parts, A and B. Please complete both parts.

Part A of the questionnaire seeks to establish the broad characteristics of the school's program in social learning in the hope that it will be possible to group schools on the basis of these broad characteristics prior to a more intensive investigation of the unique characteristics of particular programs. In asking you to respond on the basis of the main emphasis of the program(s) you are teaching, there is no assumption that other elements of the question are necessarily unimportant, and your responses will not be interpreted in this way.

You are reminded that the study is confined to Years 7-10 (Forms 1-4) and is a study of actual practices in social learning. We would therefore ask that you respond to the questions on the basis of the actual program(s) you are teaching, whether or not you are responsible for the nature of the program and whether or not you are in sympathy with its objectives.

Where there is a conflict in your answers to questions arising from the fact that you are teaching a number of different subjects/courses, please answer in relation to the subject/course in which you currently spend most teaching time in Years 7-10.

Before proceeding with the questionnaire, would you please fill in the information in the box below?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION

PLEASE COMPLETE

Position in School..

Years Teaching Experience...

Subjects Taught in Years 7-10

☐ History

☐ Geography

☐ Economics/Commerce

☐ Home Economics

☐ Social Science

☐ Social Studies

☐ General Studies

☐ Consumer Education

☐ Other (please specify)...................................

....

....

PART A

1. What is the main source of authority for the program(s) you teach in social learning?

☐ external authority (e.g. department, examining board)
☐ internal authority (e.g. principal, head of department)
☐ the teaching staff in collaboration
☐ the individual teacher
☐ a textbook or set of published materials
☐ other (please specify)..
....

2. Are you fundamentally in sympathy with the program(s) you teach in social learning?

☐ yes ☐ no

3. Which one of the following is given the most emphasis in the program(s) you teach in social learning?

☐ the content of the learning
(e.g. subject matter, concepts, generalizations)
☐ the process of learning
(e.g. skills, methodology, stages of development)
☐ the context in which the learning takes place
(e.g. individual or community needs; national or global imperatives)

4. Which one of the following best describes the methods you mainly use in teaching your program(s) in social learning?

☐ innovative
☐ radical or alternative
☐ traditional

5. In teaching your program(s) in social learning, which one of the following is given the most emphasis?

☐ the cultivation of awareness
☐ the transmission of knowledge
☐ the development of skills and abilities

6. Which one of the following best describes the usual learning climate in your classrooms in social learning?

☐ formal ☐ informal

7. Are you concerned in your program(s) in social learning with developing social values?

☐ yes ☐ no

If so, would you say the values you are seeking to develop are mainly

☐ progressive?
☐ traditional?
☐ radical, or counter-cultural?

8. Which one of the following best describes the structure of the program(s) you teach in social learning?

☐ single-subject/single-disciplinary
☐ multi-disciplinary (i.e. two or more discrete strands)
☐ interdisciplinary or 'integrated'
☐ non-disciplinary or 'emergent'

9. What methods of assessment do you use in your program(s) in social learning? Please check all those which apply. If no assessment is made please check 'other' and write 'none'.

☐ formal examinations
☐ regular tests
☐ cumulative assessment of class work
☐ projects or assignments
☐ diagnostic assessment
☐ informal assessment
☐ course evaluation
☐ other (please specify)..
....

10. What do you see as the main function of the program(s) you teach in social learning in Years 7-10?

☐ to provide a sound basis for further academic studies
☐ to introduce young people to their cultural heritage
☐ to develop young people who can think rationally and independently
☐ to equip young people to function effectively in society
☐ to help each student achieve his/her full potential as a human being
☐ to produce aware students who can act as change agents in building a better society and a better world
☐ to keep young people usefully occupied until they leave school
☐ other (please specify)..
....

PART B

Directions for Answering Part B

This section of the questionnaire is concerned with establishing the relative importance attached in your program(s) to a number of broad objectives in social learning. For each broad objective, please circle the number 1, 2, 3, or 4 according to whether you consider the particular objective to be :

1. very important
2. important
3. of minor importance
4. unimportant

Part B also recognizes a potential conflict in answering this section between the teacher's own estimation of the importance of the objective; the importance allocated to it in the planned program; and the importance it actually receives in practice in the classroom.

We have therefore provided for answers to be given in three columns labelled Ideal Program, Program as Planned, and Program in Practice, respectively, should you wish to make these distinctions in your responses.

By Ideal Program we are not seeking to invite fanciful or utopian responses, but to allow you to record the importance you would attach to these objectives if you had the freedom and opportunity to teach the sort of program you believe is required.

By providing a distinction between Program as Planned and Program in Practice we are recognizing that, for many teachers, there is often a gap between intentions and achievement, and providing the opportunity for you to record such a distinction if you perceive it in your own practice.

However, the provision of the three columns is intended to facilitate your responses, not to complicate them, and if for any or all of these questions you do not perceive these distinctions to exist, please fill in your responses in Column 1 only, and ignore Columns 2 and 3. If you perceive a distinction between your ideal program and your planned program, but not between your planned program and your program in practice, then fill in Columns 1 and 2 and ignore Column 3.

1. very important
2. important
3. of minor importance
4. unimportant

	Ideal Program	Program as Planned	Program in Practice
1. Acquiring a body of factual knowledge about...			
a...one or more of the traditional 'social' subjects e.g. History, Geography, Economics/Commerce	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
b...contemporary Australian society e.g. political system, structure, economy	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
c...the practical exigencies of every-day life in Australian society e.g. the mechanics of earning and spending, the social aspects of human sexuality	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
2. Acquiring a set of concepts and generalizations related to...			
a...one or more of the traditional 'social' subjects	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
b...the newer social sciences e.g. Sociology, Political Science, Anthropology	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
c...contemporary Australian society	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
3. Developing skills of information gathering, information processing, and inquiry	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

1. very important
2. important
3. of minor importance
4. unimportant

	Ideal Program	Program as Planned	Program in Practice
4. Developing skills of choosing and decision-making	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
5. Developing a basic competence in the methodology of one or more of the traditional 'social' subjects	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
6. Developing self-awareness/self-realization	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
7. Developing social and/or group membership skills	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
8. Developing a sense of community	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
9. Developing democratic values	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
10. Developing humanitarian values	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4

PLEASE RETURN THE COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE STAMPED

ADDRESSED ENVELOPE PROVIDED AS SOON AS PRACTICABLE

(ii) **Student Q-sort Cards**

LEARNING FACTS ABOUT TRADITIONAL SOCIAL 'SUBJECTS'

e.g.
- . facts about the past (History)
- . facts about places and peoples (Geography)
- . facts about business and finance (Commerce)

etc.

1a

LEARNING FACTS ABOUT THE SOCIETY YOU LIVE IN

e.g.
- . facts about the political system
- . facts about the economy
- . facts about the local community

etc.

1b

LEARNING FACTS ABOUT THE DAY TO DAY PROBLEMS OF LIVING IN AUSTRALIAN SOCIETY

e.g.
- . facts about earning a living
- . facts about buying and spending
- . facts about the social aspects of human sexuality

etc.

1c

(ii) Student Q-sort Cards

LEARNING BROAD GENERAL IDEAS ABOUT TRADITIONAL SOCIAL 'SUBJECTS'

e.g.
- ideas about the past (History)
- ideas about places and peoples (Geography)
- ideas about business and finance (Commerce)

etc. 2a

LEARNING BROAD GENERAL IDEAS ABOUT THE NEWER 'SOCIAL SCIENCES'

e.g.
- ideas about how societies work (Sociology)
- ideas about how societies are governed (Political Science)
- ideas about how societies develop (Anthropology)

etc. 2b

LEARNING BROAD IDEAS ABOUT THE SOCIETY YOU LIVE IN

e.g.
- ideas about social change
- ideas about social relationships
- ideas about the individual and society

etc. 2c

(ii) Student Q-sort Cards

LEARNING HOW TO FIND THINGS OUT FOR YOURSELF

e.g.
- how and where to find information when you need it
- how to make sense of what you find out
- how to judge for yourself the value, truth, or importance of what you find out

etc. 3

LEARNING HOW TO MAKE CHOICES AND DECISIONS

e.g.
- the importance of making sound and responsible choices
- how to make considered choices and decisions
- how to act on choices

etc. 4

LEARNING THE METHODS USED BY SOCIAL SCIENTISTS IN DISCOVERING NEW KNOWLEDGE

e.g.
- the methods used by historians
- the methods used by geographers
- the methods used by economists

etc. 5

(ii) Student Q-sort Cards

LEARNING TO KNOW YOURSELF

e.g.
- understanding what sort of person you are
- developing self-confidence
- developing a set of personal values

etc. 6

LEARNING HOW TO LIVE WITH OTHERS

e.g.
- learning how to communicate with others
- learning how to relate to others
- learning how to work with others in a group

etc. 7

DEVELOPING A SENSE OF COMMUNITY

e.g.
- understanding how people depend on one another in communities
- understanding how the community can help you
- understanding how you can help the community

etc. 8

(ii) Student Q-sort Cards

DEVELOPING DEMOCRATIC VALUES

e.g.
- learning to respect the rights and freedoms of others
- learning to accept the will of the majority
- learning to be concerned about the rights of minorities

etc. 9

DEVELOPING HUMANITARIAN VALUES

e.g.
- learning to value human life and human dignity
- learning to care about others
- learning to value justice

etc. 10

APPENDIX II

SUMMARY OF ITEM STATISTICS

Table A2.1 Means and Variances: Teachers/Ideal (N = 91)

					Variance							
	Mean				within schools				between schools			
Item	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III
1a	.68	1.08	.48	.73	.43	.58	.40	.21	.16	.09	.09	.06
1b	.98	1.20	.93	.87	.42	.44	.50	.12	.13	.07	.16	.06
1c	1.45	1.56	1.45	1.53	.43	.34	.47	.41	.09	.02	.07	.19
2a	.81	1.12	.72	.93	.51	.53	.49	.50	.19	.11	.26	.18
2b	.75	.92	.69	1.13	.44	.41	.44	.27	.14	.06	.10	.08
2c	1.21	1.12	1.45	1.27	.48	.44	.40	.50	.12	.09	.06	.19
3	1.57	1.44	1.76	1.53	.36	.26	.26	.27	.23	.09	.05	.15
4	1.64	1.40	1.90	1.53	.34	.42	.10	.41	.14	.02	.01	.11
5	.70	.64	.72	.73	.39	.32	.56	.35	.08	.02	.18	.06
6	1.76	1.60	1.90	1.93	.23	.33	.10	.07	.11	.03	.02	.02
7	1.60	1.40	1.76	1.87	.31	.25	.19	.12	.07	.05	.03	.02
8	1.31	1.13	1.34	1.80	.44	.65	.45	.17	.12	.01	.13	.01
9	1.07	.80	1.17	1.20	.46	.33	.43	.60	.11	.11	.05	.18
10	1.51	1.28	1.62	1.93	.39	.29	.32	.07	.12	.08	.04	.02

Table A2.2 Means and Variances: Students/Ideal (N = 1079)

	Mean				Variance							
					within schools				between schools			
Item	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III
1a	.79	.75	.79	.80	.53	.51	.52	.53	.04	.04	.02	.12
1b	1.17	1.18	1.16	1.19	.56	.54	.61	.46	.02	.03	.02	.04
1c	1.57	1.55	1.55	1.54	.41	.41	.45	.40	.02	.03	.02	.02
2a	.65	.60	.67	.70	.54	.52	.57	.53	.02	.01	.01	.07
2b	.56	.60	.54	.61	.58	.44	.49	.42	.02	.01	.02	.03
2c	.87	.90	.81	.93	.57	.54	.59	.58	.02	.03	.01	.03
3	1.38	1.30	1.35	1.53	.44	.54	.54	.39	.02	.00	.02	.03
4	1.35	1.31	1.33	1.44	.61	.60	.61	.60	.04	.08	.01	.02
5	.30	.27	.32	.29	.32	.32	.36	.24	.01	.02	.00	.01
6	1.42	1.41	1.43	1.49	.58	.59	.59	.54	.04	.07	.02	.07
7	1.56	1.49	1.58	1.62	.37	.48	.50	.38	.03	.05	.02	.02
8	.97	.81	.95	1.12	.62	.57	.62	.62	.05	.04	.03	.05
9	1.06	1.08	.99	1.22	.58	.69	.68	.58	.04	.06	.01	.06
10	1.38	1.37	1.30	1.47	.59	.57	.64	.54	.03	.06	.02	.03

Table A2.3 Means and Variances: Teachers/Planned (N = 91)

					Variance							
	Mean				within schools				between schools			
Item	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III
1a	.73	1.20	.52	.53	.36	.25	.33	.27	.19	.04	.15	.11
1b	.78	.92	.79	.47	.44	.49	.46	.27	.12	.04	.25	.00
1c	1.15	1.04	1.28	1.07	.55	.54	.56	.64	.18	.06	.21	.43
2a	.67	.80	.69	.60	.42	.42	.51	.40	.12	.06	.20	.13
2b	.49	.40	.52	.80	.39	.42	.40	.31	.10	.06	.08	.06
2c	1.00	.64	1.31	1.13	.49	.41	.36	.41	.17	.02	.10	.29
3	1.26	.76	1.69	1.27	.53	.36	.29	.35	.21	.11	.04	.05
4	1.36	.84	1.79	1.40	.57	.56	.17	.54	.22	.05	.03	.10
5	.59	.48	.66	.60	.36	.34	.45	.26	.09	.06	.11	.13
6	1.30	.76	1.59	1.67	.68	.69	.39	.38	.19	.02	.05	.13
7	1.32	.92	1.59	1.80	.51	.33	.39	.17	.18	.03	.11	.04
8	1.06	.64	1.17	1.60	.61	.49	.58	.40	.23	.05	.15	.10
9	.89	.56	1.03	1.20	.50	.34	.39	.60	.18	.05	.06	.29
10	1.29	.96	1.38	1.87	.45	.21	.39	.12	.22	.03	.02	.02

Table A2.4 **Means and Variances: Teachers/Operative** (N = 91)

	Mean				Variance							
					within schools				between schools			
Item	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III
1a	.71	1.12	.48	.47	.34	.28	.26	.27	.16	.01	.12	.10
1b	.70	.80	.72	.47	.43	.42	.49	.27	.14	.11	.18	.00
1c	1.07	.88	1.28	1.07	.64	.61	.56	.64	.22	.09	.21	.43
2a	.58	.68	.59	.53	.33	.31	.39	.27	.09	.03	.14	.11
2b	.42	.24	.48	.60	.31	.19	.40	.26	.10	.01	.09	.06
2c	.90	.56	1.28	1.07	.47	.26	.35	.50	.22	.05	.10	.34
3	1.19	.60	1.69	1.20	.58	.42	.29	.31	.32	.11	.04	.04
4	1.19	.52	1.66	1.27	.73	.51	.45	.50	.29	.03	.12	.19
5	.49	.28	.62	.47	.32	.21	.39	.27	.08	.01	.12	.10
6	1.16	.64	1.45	1.47	.69	.57	.54	.41	.20	.02	.13	.15
7	1.29	.88	1.55	1.73	.54	.44	.40	.21	.18	.05	.15	.06
8	.92	.64	1.03	1.33	.58	.49	.61	.52	.19	.07	.16	.03
9	.85	.52	.97	1.20	.49	.26	.39	.60	.18	.05	.11	.29
10	1.20	.80	1.34	1.80	.54	.33	.45	.17	.21	.02	.05	.01

Table A2.5 Means and Variances: Students/Operative (N = 1079)

					Variance							
	Mean				within schools				between schools			
Item	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III	T	I	II	III
1a	1.38	1.51	1.30	1.23	.53	.39	.61	.57	.11	.04	.12	.21
1b	.96	.92	.91	1.14	.63	.64	.68	.57	.07	.09	.05	.07
1c	.97	.76	.98	1.08	.73	.64	.76	.62	.10	.08	.13	.05
2a	1.19	1.18	1.18	1.15	.61	.60	.64	.56	.07	.07	.07	.15
2b	.61	.64	.50	.91	.57	.54	.54	.60	.06	.04	.02	.06
2c	.75	.68	.61	1.10	.57	.52	.47	.62	.07	.03	.03	.03
3	.91	.77	.98	1.14	.67	.62	.70	.58	.07	.03	.01	.12
4	.74	.53	.75	1.10	.68	.51	.72	.71	.08	.01	.07	.04
5	.58	.71	.61	.53	.58	.59	.60	.55	.03	.03	.02	.01
6	.87	.65	.77	1.29	.74	.59	.73	.70	.12	.05	.04	.10
7	1.10	.81	1.07	1.51	.68	.65	.65	.47	.08	.01	.02	.01
8	.82	.68	.78	1.16	.62	.49	.59	.67	.06	.02	.02	.03
9	.75	.65	.73	1.10	.64	.46	.61	.67	.08	.02	.02	.07
10	.86	.80	.80	1.23	.66	.63	.60	.64	.07	.03	.01	.05

APPENDIX III

A NOTE ON SAMPLE DESIGN EFFECTS

In this study the sample of ninety-one teachers was obtained via a two-stage sampling process in which twenty schools were selected at the first stage of sampling. The selection of our units of analysis as clusters rather than individually means that we must make adjustments to our significance tests for the 'design effects' (Kish, 1965) which are associated with the sample design.

From previous large scale evaluation studies carried out in Australia (Peaker, 1975) we know that a good estimate of the design effect (deff) for correlation coefficients is:

$$\text{deff} = R(k-1) + 1 \qquad \text{(Peaker, 1975:46)}$$

where k is the ultimate cluster size

and R is a constant.

By using an approximation of average k for the ultimate cluster size and R = 0.06 (Peaker, 1975:46) we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{deff} &= 0.06\left(\frac{91}{20} - 1\right) + 1 \\ &= 1.21\end{aligned}$$

This value of deff may be used to calculate the size of the 'simple equivalent sample' (Ross, 1978:138). That is, the size of the simple random sample which has sampling precision which is equivalent to our two-stage cluster sample.

$$\begin{array}{l}\text{The size of the} \\ \text{simple equivalent sample}\end{array} = \frac{\text{Actual sample size}}{\text{deff}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{That is, } n_{ses} &= \frac{91}{1.21} \\ &= 75 \text{ (approximately)}\end{aligned}$$

We now use the value of n_{ses} to obtain values of significant correlation coefficients - rather than the actual sample size which does not incorporate adjustments for multiple stages of sampling.

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